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Studies on Thysanuran Anatomy. By H. T. FERNALD.

(Preliminary Communication.)

The importance of a complete knowledge of the anatomy of the Thysanura for the intelligent consideration of questions relating to insect phylogeny, has led me to devote considerable attention to this group. A more complete paper, of the original portion of which this is but an abstract, is now ready for publication.

The forms here considered are *Anurida maritima*, and *Lepisma saccharina*—the former quite fully, the latter only in a few particulars.

In *Anurida* the two pairs of mouthparts—mandibles and maxillae—can be protruded from, or drawn into the cavity of the head where they lie in a sort of pocket, ventral to the pharynx. The digestive tract is composed of three chief divisions—fore, mid and hind gut—separated from each other by structures functioning as valves. The fore gut has no longitudinal muscles and the circular fibres have all their nuclei on the middle dorsal line of the gut. In the mid gut no chitinous lining is present, but the free surface of the epithelium is covered by fine hairs which constitute the "Härchensaum" described by Frenzel (*Arch. f. Mik. Anat.*, XXVI, p. 229, 1886). In molting, the nuclei of these cells divide, and the products of this division pass to opposite ends of the cells. The cells themselves now divide, and the portions nearest the lumen are set free. These form a mass which lies in the gut till the cuticula of the exterior of the body is thrown off, when it is expelled.

A structure termed by Sommer (*Zeits. w. Zool.*, XLI, p. 683, 1885) the "exkretionsorgane" in *Macrotoma*, is present in *Anurida*, and I regard it as homologous with the fat body of the higher insects. Its connection with the hypodermis, Sommer believes, proves that this is not correct, but my specimens appear to indicate that such a relation is only secondary.

The heart lies on the dorsal middle line, and at its anterior end becomes continuous with the aorta, which passes forward and after a time bends ventrally and rests on the fore gut. Farther forward it entirely surrounds this, and extends below it to the sub-oesophageal ganglion. A little anterior to this point it abruptly ends. The nervous system consists of a brain, a sub-oesophageal ganglion and three ventral ganglia, one in each segment of the thorax. No abdominal ganglia occur, but the metathoracic ganglion appears to have resulted from the fusion of at least two.

In each of the main nerve trunks, near its origin, lies a very large nucleus, more than twice the size of the nuclei of nerve cells, nuclei of the ganglia or brain. I have been unable to ascertain its significance. From the brain are innervated the antennæ and eyes; from the sub-oesophageal ganglion, the mouth parts; from the thoracic ganglia, the different parts of the segments in which they are situated; the metathoracic ganglion, in addition innervating the abdomen. One or two small ganglia with two or three nerve cells are present in the more distal joints of the legs. Tactile bristles are scattered over the surface of the body, and are especially abundant in the antennæ and around the mouth.

On the terminal joint of each antenna is a small trilobed organ, similar to the bilobed organ described for *Campodea* by Kingsley (*Am. Nat.*, XVIII, p. 540, 1884). I have traced its connection with a nerve fibre, and am inclined to look upon it as in some way aiding in the determination of the forms of the objects which it may touch. There are five eyes on each side of the head, each consisting of a nearly spherical mass of protoplasm containing four nuclei, and covered externally by the cuticula which is here smooth, though bearing small protuberances elsewhere. Immediately beneath the protoplasm is a dense layer of pigment. The different eyes of each side are entirely independent, and lie some little distance apart. No structure resembling an ommatidium could be found.

The post-antennal organ described by Laboulbène is situated between the eyes and the base of the antenna, on each side of the head. It is a rosette like structure, consisting of from seven to nine ovoid bodies radiating from a centre. At the central end of each is a sort of pedicel or stalk joining the

ovoid portion to the head. Both parts of the organ are filled by a pigmented protoplasm continuous with the hypodermis. No nerve connection was observed.

The abdominal vesicle is situated on the ventral surface of the first abdominal segment. It is cleft longitudinally and the hypodermic cells lining this cleft are glandular in appearance, and are larger than on the outer sides of the vesicle. Passing forward from this point on the ventral middle line of the body to a median cleft in the lower lip, is a small tube, in the formation of which both hypodermis and cuticula take part.

In the posterior portion of the head are a pair of glands which resemble salivary glands and which I regard as their homologues here. From these glands a duct leads forward and soon fuses with its fellow, and the median duct thus formed passes along the under surface of the buccal cavity to a median cleft of the under lip, where, instead of emptying into the mouth, it turns downward and joins the ventral tube just described. This remarkable relation of the parts concerned I am unable to explain, although sure that no error of observation was made. Traces of a rudimentary "spring" occur in the fourth abdominal segment. The female reproductive organs are a pair of tubes, the ducts from which join, forming a median duct with a ventral diverticulum—the receptaculum seminis. The structure of these parts and the formation of ova is nearly the same as described by Sommer (l. c.) for *Macrotoma*.

The number and arrangement of the male reproductive organs is the same as in the female except that there is no ventral diverticulum of the median duct. In both sexes the external opening of this duct is on the fifth abdominal segment.

In the immature testis are groups of granules and scattered nuclei. These groups develop, the granules elongate, and form threads lying in bundles. Soon degeneration occurs, resulting in the formation of a quite homogeneous mass, with scattered nuclei, around which protoplasm collects, forming a sort of epithelium in which fat globules and spermatozoa are formed.

Lepisma saccharina is larger than *Anurida*, and has ten abdominal segments. Three anal cerci and several abdominal appendages are present, and the female has in addition a long ovipositor.

The mouth parts are of the mandibulate type and cannot be retracted into the head. The digestive tract behind the brain gradually enlarges till near the end of the fourth abdominal segment, where it abruptly contracts, and now in its walls six chitinous rods are formed, armed with stout teeth, while the circular muscle layer becomes much developed. Beyond these rods the lumen becomes still smaller and turns dorsally, then suddenly bends ventrally and enters the stomach. This has extending forward from the entrance of the portion just described, six short ceca. It passes back into the seventh segment of the abdomen, where it makes a half circle to the left, and joins the ileum which completes the circle, passing dorsal to the stomach, and continues back about one segment when it enters the rectum. The rectum is a large irregularly shaped chamber with many folds and diverticula. It finally narrows and leads by a very short straight tube to the anus.

The epithelium of the stomach bears a "Härenchensaum," and in many places forms small crypts, the function of which is claimed by Oudemans to be the formation of new cells. The crypts are certainly suggestive of a glandular function, however. The stomach has no chitinous intima, but all the other parts of the digestive tract are lined by a cuticle. This is the case in the ileum, from the anterior end of which several Malpighian tubes are given off. The epithelium of the ileum is thrown into six longitudinal folds. This whole portion is supported by mesenteries passing in various directions, accompanied by muscle fibres. The rectal epithelium is columnar and its cell walls stain very faintly. The nuclei lie near the bases of the cells.

Salivary glands of a simple nature and with no noteworthy features, are present. The fat body is apparently of the same structure as in Anurida.

The heart leads forward into an aorta, which in the prothorax bends downward from the dorsal surface of the body till it touches the oesophagus. It does not enclose this but soon becomes lost. The heart at its posterior end is wide open, somewhat like the mouth of a trumpet, anterior to which point it becomes small, and with very muscular walls. About two abdominal segments farther forward it quite rapidly enlarges till its lumen is seven or eight times as large as it was before, while the walls become thinner. The heart between here and the aorta has its usual structure, with ostia, none of which were observed in the muscular portion.

A tracheal system is present, but I failed to ascertain its exact distribution.

The nervous system consists of a brain, sub-oesophageal ganglion, three thoracic and eight abdominal ganglia. Of these the last thoracic and first two abdominal ganglia, and the seventh and eighth abdominal ganglia are partially fused.

The brain is more complicated than in Anurida, calyces being present. No trace of the large nuclei at the origins of the main nerve trunks, was found.

Each eye consists of twelve facets or ommatidea. Each ommatidium consists of a large cornea, beneath which are two corneagen cells. The crystalline cone has the form of a concavo-convex lens, and just lateral to it are the four cells of the vitrella.

The rhabdomere is pyramidal, its base resting against the internal face of the crystalline cone. Surrounding it are four retinalae which are densely pigmented and the proximal ends of which perforate the basement membrane and become optic nerves. The ommatidea on the whole somewhat resemble those of Serolis. Between them are packed pigment cells.

The position and structure of the reproductive organs of both sexes is much the same as in Anurida.

Lepisma seems to represent about the highest grade of differentiation yet attained by the Cinura, while Anurida seems to have undergone a differentiation perhaps even greater, but followed by a degradation, probably correlated with a change of habits and food. The internal anatomy of the Thysanura as a whole appears to confirm the Campoplex theory advanced by Brauer.

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Reverend Mother of the Holy Trinity

St. Anne's Convent, N. York

Dear Mother

in the Holy Holy Holy, Amen

Be

Yr. Obedient

Baltimore

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Introduction

Section I. General Principles

Notes on *Ichneumon saccharinus*

Existing views as to the relationships of Ichneumonidae.

The probable character of the ancestors of insects.

a. as shown by Paleontology.

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The problem of the phylogeny of Orthoptera has recently been attracting much attention among entomologists. However, save upon the *Psyllaea*, *Limulidae*, *Periplaneta* and the *Stachyridae*, nearly all writers contented themselves with a few statements of the "probabilities" concerning the *Dermaptera* and *Orthoptera*.

The theory of Brauer and Lubbock, that the insects are derived from a *Symphyla*-like ancestor, was in a great measure the result of the discovery that in certain separated groups *Symphyla*-like characters were found. The theory was formulated almost entirely from external features. Important for the acceptance or rejection of this belief, therefore, as is the study of the anatomy of larvae and of the *Thysanura*—which group *Symphyla* belongs, almost nothing in this line has been attempted, and the scattered papers concerning the literature of the subject abound in inaccuracies and wrong inferences.

The group *Thysanura* as given by Linnaeus, 1758, really consists of two—the *Linnaea*, including the genera *Symphyla*, *Dermaptera*, *Stachyridae*, *Lichenura* etc.—and the *Collembola*, a larger group, including the genera *Symphyla*, *Tomocerus*, *Podura*, *Lepisma* etc. To these two the second

has added a kind—the *Synsacculi*—containing the single genus *Synsacculus*.

The question of most of the genera is now quite well known thanks to the patient and careful labors of Grassi and others and others but for the anatomy and histology of the *Alveolata* I have been able to find but one recent paper—on articles upon *Alveolata*, *Tricococcus* by Sommer 85.

Our ignorance of these groups and the value of a knowledge of them for the student of the phylogeny of *Chlorophyta* has induced me to devote my attention chiefly to these forms. My studies have been upon a degenerate *Chlorobion*, *Chlorobion* *maritima*, and upon the *Alveolata* *Lichisma saccharina*. I shall here give the results.

The various groups which will be considered in this paper and consideration of the most prominent views as to the phylogeny of *Chlorophyta* and *Chlorobion* will be presented in the light of the studies just preceding. Finally I shall come to the conclusions reached and offer a few suggestions as to the origin of the group and the possible paths along which its main branches may have developed.

Stomatopoda : *Stomatopoda maritima*, Linn.

This little animal occurs along the eastern and western shores of the Atlantic Ocean. It has been reported from Harve, Laboulbène 17, and Trehoul, France. (Nicollet, 77) from St Andrews Scotland, and, since Ireland, Lubbock 73, and in this country from Nantucket, Mass. (Richard 75) and I have myself found it abundant at Connequot on the western side of the bay. It is found between high and low water marks, in crevices of the rocks, under small stones, or floating helplessly about in the tide pools where it frequently forms clusters of some little size. It is slow in movement and is easily captured, and according to Laboulbène feeds on small mollusks, it being not necessary to place one of these with its shell crushed near the crevices where the *Stomatopoda* lives, to obtain large numbers of them. Collected from the pond.

Preparation.—

The animals were placed either in an aqueous solution of Picric-sulphuric Acid to which a little Ether had been added or in Perenyi's Fluid similarly treated. In the former fluid the

specimens were left two hours and in the latter one hour after which they were slowly raised through different grades of alcohol to that of ninety per cent.

The latter was added to describe the latter matter with which these animals are covered that the killing agents might penetrate more rapidly.

After a few unsuccessful attempts to stain in toto I found that the best results were secured by placing the animals for about twelve hours in absolute alcohol then in succession three hours in chloroform, one hour in cedar oil, paraffine in chloroform, three hours in melted soft paraffine, and finally, six hours in melted hard paraffine. These lengths of time were varied, but the one here given, proved about the best. The specimens were now imbedded and sections cut with a Leitz microtome using one of the sixty divisions of the drum wheel, or about one four hundredth of a millimeter.

The sections were fixed to the slides with Meyer's albumen fixative after coagulation which the slides were passed successively through turpentine, absolute alcohol, cedar oil, and seventy per cent alcohol five minutes in each, then placed in Bohmer's osmotic fluid for three minutes. They were then washed in one half per cent alum solution to which an equal volume of ordinary alcohol had been added, and were then passed through the various grades of alcohol in the reverse order, placed in turpentine for

several minutes and then mounted in Canada Balsam.

External structure.

The adult insect is from $\frac{1}{16}$ to five millimeters in length, rather linear in form, and of a shining blue-black color, lighter in young specimens. The body is distinctly divided into head, thorax and abdomen. The head is rather flattened and pointed in front, so that on side view it resembles a right triangle, the vertical surface representing the altitude, and its line of attachment to the thorax, the base. On the dorsal surface of the head, in front, are the two antennae, simple and usually three jointed, though I have observed four joints in a few instances. (No. 46.) Lubbock '73 states that mutilation of the antennae is extremely common in this group, and that a reproduction of the lost part is frequent at the next molt. If so, this will explain the different number of joints in different individuals, but as the terminal joint in those having but three is in form and size like the terminal joint in those having four, besides bearing well developed sense organs, I am doubtful whether mutilation is the cause of this variation.

The terminal joint is usually somewhat larger than the others and bears on its top a cluster of bristles, and on its dorsal inner surface

of the antenna, in a slight depression is a peculiar structure - the post-antennal organ - first described by Latreille (1804). Just behind this is a cluster of five eyes, "celli" imbedded in a mass of pigment, denser here than elsewhere.

The mouth (fig. 3) is nearly terminal, only slightly ventral, and is a circular opening with a cleft extending back a short distance on the ventral median line.

The thorax consists of the Prothorax, Mesothorax and Metathorax, all distinct and each bearing a pair of five-jointed legs ending in a simple claw. There are no lobes or ridges on the dorsal surface of the thorax.

The abdomen consists of six segments. On the undersurface of the first segment is the Abdominal Vesicle or Ventral Tube which consists of a somewhat antero-posteriorly elongated protuberance with a median longitudinal cleft. Passing forward from the bottom of this cleft along the ventral mid line to the anterior end of the ventral cleft of the next segment is a peculiar sac-like structure.

Opening on a small papilla of the fifth segment is the single genital opening. There is no external indication of any structure in the adult resembling the "spring" possessed by most of the Collembola but in the young.

Under 'Int.' describes two processes on the ventral surface of the fourth segment which he considers a rudimentary "limb."

Integument.

The integument consists of a hypodermis which secretes an external chitinous cuticula and ecto-epidermal basement membrane. (Fig. 2.) Its thickness varies, being less on the under surface of the animal and greater on the head. (Fig. 8.) But averaging from 0.03 mm. to 0.04 mm.

The body, when it is examined, does not, ~~as is commonly supposed~~, appear filled by a dense black pigment, which in the specimens examined concealed all nuclei from sight, and which immersion of the sections in forty-five percent. nitric acid, for ten minutes, failed to remove.

In young specimens the pigment is less dense and does not fill the ~~entire body~~ ^{entire body}, thus giving the animal a mottled appearance.

The cuticula also varies in thickness in different parts of the body, but is usually thinner than the underlying hypodermis. It is transparent and colorless and is ~~not~~ ^{not} marked by numerous small, irregular protuberances which show a tendency to an arrangement in some form. When examined in section some specimens indicate a partial separation into two layers, one internal, the other external, the line of separation

passing just below the bases of the protuberances. (p. 2.)

Scattered among the protuberances are long bristles, generally in small groups, many, probably all, sensory in function.

The basement membrane on which the hypodermis rests is apparently structureless, and marks the external limit of the body wall. In many places this membrane is separated from the hypodermis by the fat body, or as it is called by Sommer, '55', the "Exkretionsorgan" which attaches directly to the hypodermis, and over the surface of which the membrane is reflected.

In some places the integument undergoes special modifications, especially in connection with the sense organs. In many cases the superficial modifications are hypodermic and the cuticula is secreted as a ~~very thin~~ ^{very} ~~thin~~ ^{thin} ~~and~~ ^{and} ~~conforming~~ ^{conforming} ~~to the~~ ^{to the} ~~underlying~~ ^{underlying} ~~structure~~ ^{structure}. The only exception of the post-antennal organ, to this, ^{not} being a secretion.

Muscular System. —

The muscles are both internal and external, and show considerable variation in different specimens. They attach themselves to the cuticula on its inner face at which points the hypodermis is somewhat transparent, losing its pigment, and apparently becoming itself somewhat chitinous.

Where the attachments are internal they may be either to the lining surface or to chitinous bodies, themselves held in place by other muscles, passing in various directions to the outer surface.

~~They consist of from one fibre to several bundles, but each fibre is surrounded by a chitinous sheath, and a thin serous layer, some a minute periviscium is also apparently present.~~

The muscles differ histologically, forming two classes. In one class the fibres seem very granular, have rather poorly defined outlines and only faint indications of the light and dim bands (Fig. 2). In the other class the outlines are very distinct, and the light and dim bands show plainly, and with regular alternation where (Fig. 3). These fibres are arranged in a regular pattern, and are of the following type:

STRUCTURE OF THE PHARYNX

The oral chamber leads into a buccal cavity of considerable size which in longitudinal section (Fig. 3) is seen to divide posteriorly into a dorsal and a ventral chamber. The dorsal chamber is the beginning of the pharynx and is nearly circular in cross section. The ventral chamber is broad and bent dorsally at the sides.

A little behind the point of separation from the dorsal chamber it divides into two pouches, one on each side which continue backward for some distance and also bend dorsally arising from the inner ends of these pouches and passing forward in the buccal cavity are two pairs of jaws, mounted on long hollow stalks. One pair a vice dorsal and labial, & the other pair, the jaws, on the inner side a space between them and a small tooth.

The homologies of these parts I have been unable to determine with certainty, but consider the *maxillulae* as homologous to the maxillae, and the others the mandibles, of the higher insects.

These the middle one have irregular blunt teeth, while that on one side has a large number which are long and fine, and that on the other side has most saw-like ones. The middle one is not movable, and are probably controlled by muscles which pass within the chitinous shell of the middle stack from their base to their bases.

mandibular muscle, as the mandibular process seems to be firmly
fixed to the skull and not attached to it in a joint.

The walls of the ventral chamber and of the two pouches are lined
by granular cells with large deep staining nuclei. This much
resemble gland cells. This are covered externally by the
chitinous cuticle lining the mouth cavity and fore gut, and
which is here thin and delicate.

In the dorsal median line of the ventral chamber is a chitinous
ridge extending forward to where this chamber joins the buccal
cavity. The arrangement of the superficial muscles seems to
indicate that this ridge may serve as a sort of fulcrum for
obtaining certain motions of the jaws, and as a firm attachment
for other muscles running to different parts of the head.

The muscles moving these jaws are quite numerous, and
there are also sets of extensor and retractor muscles to move
the chambers containing the jaws, themselves forward that the
latter may protrude from the mouth, and to draw the chambers
back into the cavity of the head. In this ^{rest} position the
lateral pouches often extend nearly to the back
the head.

The pharynx bends upward and then backward extending to the anterior surface of the brain smooth which it passes through the same time changing its structure and becoming the oesophagus. This extends to the posterior end of the notothorax where it joins the mid gut the pharynx and oesophagus together forming the fore gut.

The oesophagus is lined by a delicate chitinous cuticle which is thrown into irregular folds (fig. - 5). This cuticle is a granular protoplasmic layer containing numerous round or oval nuclei. Cell walls are either indistinguishable or nearly so in longitudinal sections show the cuticle alternating with the nuclei. The cells rest upon a very delicate tunica propria which separates them from the layer of circular muscle. Each muscle fibre completely encircles the oesophagus and the fibres are closely packed, side by side and are of the striped variety. In the median dorsal line is the median nerve fibre. External to this layer of muscle is a delicate cuticle. Below this cuticle is a layer of longitudinal muscle fibres.

The pharynx differs from the oesophagus only in having its circular muscle layer more developed, and in having striated muscles - striated pharynxis - which attach themselves to the tunica propria, pushing in between the circular fibres, and passing to their various points of origin. There are three groups of these muscles, two dorsal and one ventral.

One dorsal group passes forward from its attachment, its fibres diverging to the right and left sides, and becoming joined to the body wall. The other dorsal group passes directly upward in front of the oesophagus, its fibres also diverging to the right and left.

The ventral group runs directly back beneath the pharynx to a point between it and the suboesophageal ganglion. Here the fibres attach to a chitinous mass held in place by straddling muscles which arise in the same manner as the other ones. The contraction of the dorsal group of muscles pulls the pharynx forward, and the contraction of the ventral group to pull it back.

At the hind end of the prothorax the oesophagus enters the anterior end of the mid-gut, into which it protrudes slightly, forming a papilla. Here the mid-gut has about three times the diameter of the pro-gut, and this papilla enters it close to its ventral wall. A dorsal and lateral pocket is formed which have been homologised with the

proventriculus of the higher insects. But as it seems to me, on very slight grounds. The proventriculus in most insects is separated by a small tube from the stomach, which is the organ homologous with the mid gut, here, and can be easily understood as an enlargement of the oesophagus. If the tube, posterior to it, and connecting it with the stomach, were pushed into the latter to form the papilla even then the proventriculus would not assume the position of this rocket, and I am more inclined to consider this structure as the incidental product of the union of the stomodaeum and mesenteron, and functioning as a sort of valve.

Just at the base of the papilla the circular muscles form a close ring and constitute what may together with the papilla be termed the Cardiac Valve.

The papilla consists of elongated, club-shaped cells, the larger ends protruding towards the mid gut. The cell boundaries are very indistinct. The papilla is evidently a part of the fore gut as it is covered by a chitinous cuticle, which ceases however at the bottom of the rocket described above (Fig. 2).

The mid gut extends to the end of the fourth abdominal segment, increasing slightly in its diameter towards its hinder end, but

contracting again before joining the hind gut. Its structure is quite uniform throughout. It consists of a layer of cubical almost columnar polygonal epithelial cells, each cell containing near its centre quite a large oval nucleus showing several chromatin

near their bases, and some have also a large spot of achromatin-like substance in some part of the cell. The free ~~edge~~ surface of the epithelium when examined with a Leiss D. No. 4 shows a deep-stained narrow band, but under a one-twelfth inch immersion objective

this becomes a narrow border outside the cell boundary, and apparently

were not killed quickly enough to preserve these portions as well as could be desired, and that this border is the "Häutchen" of Kämpf to which he refers in the mid gut of Eusilacea and insects and which he apparently considers as a variety of ordinary skin, for he says: "Die

-häuten-Häutchen) Zellen intubieren."

The cell walls vary greatly in their distinctness, being well marked in some, and hardly to be seen in others. I am inclined to attribute this latter condition also to poor preservation.

The epithelium is not thrown into folds but is quite smooth and rests on a very delicate tunica propria continuous with that of the fore gut.

The mid gut has both circular and longitudinal muscles. The former are much smaller than those of the oesophagus and are some distance apart (fig. 11). Otherwise they are quite like those of the fore gut.

The longitudinal muscles are also very small. They are scattered over the outer surface of the mid gut, external to the circular fibres, and are very unimportant in its anterior portion. In the posterior portion both layers become more coarsely developed (figs. 14, 15). External to all is an enveloping connective tissue membrane.

The appearance of the epithelium of the mid gut differs greatly at different times especially during oedogenesis, and these changes will be described later.

The mid gut extends from the middle of the body to the posterior end and joins the hind gut in the middle of the body. There the mid gut and hind gut join, the epithelium becomes columnar and forms a thickened band external to which is a bundle of circular muscle fibres forming a ring which

may be termed the 'typhlocoele' part.

The epithelium of the hind gut consists of low, granular cells, thrown into irregular folds and ridges, projecting into the lumen.

The cells rest upon a tunica, propria which is very delicate. External to this are scattered circular muscles which do not follow the epithelium in its foldings and thus spaces are left between them and the tunica, propria, Fig. 17. The epithelium contains large oval nuclei showing several chromatin granules. On the surface bordering the lumen is excreted a chitinous cuticle bearing neither hairs nor spines.

The circular muscle fibres which are attached to the tunica propria at intervals are of the striped variety, and as in the fore gut each fibre completely surrounds the gut. External to these muscles is a connective tissue membrane which binds down on each side of the muscle fibres till it touches the tunica propria.

In these sections blood capillaries may frequently be observed, and Sommer who observed a similar structure in *Amphioxus* suggested that aeration of the blood takes place here. On the other hand the caecities appear to form a part of, and to be in free communication with the general body cavity, in which blood capillaries are

abundant, and for this reason I see no indication that
there here to deal with any special mechanism more than
anywhere in the gut. It seems to me that this relation of the
muscle to the epithelium secures a more complete closure of
the lumen, thus aiding in the expulsion of the faeces and
accomplishing this more effectually than if the muscle were
attached continuously.

No longitudinal muscle occurs, but from various points on this portion of
a gut, musculo-dilator recti—pass dorsally, laterally and ventrally
to the body wall, thus serving the same purpose as longitudinal muscle.

Certain features about the digestive tract as a whole, are worth noting.
We have here evidently a very simple structure, differing markedly from the
oesophagus, mesenteron and proctodaeum of the embryo, and but little
modified therefrom. The three parts are separated by simple valves: there
are no diverticula of either portion, and the histological structure corresponds
the epithelium, tunica, propria, circular muscle and connective tissue membrane,
being present in all three portions. The chitinous cuticle of the fore and hind gut
is replaced in the mid gut by the "trachearium", and the longitudinal muscles of
the mid gut are, in the fore and hind guts replaced by dilator muscles
passing outward to the body wall.

Fat Body...

occupies a large portion of the body cavity a mass of tissue which constitutes the fat body. I regard as corresponding to the fat body of the *aphid*.

In the first abdominal segment it consists of a large mass lying on each side of the gut and pressing against it, but having no prolongations to the outer surface of the body. In the metathorax occurs a prolongation to the hypodermis just ventral to the legs. Farther forward this attachment becomes lost, and anterior to the mesothoracic nerve ganglion a lateral one appears. This also soon ends and in the region of the mesothoracic ganglion an attachment just external to the legs is formed. In front of this ganglion the attachment becomes lost and the lateral attachment reappears. At the prothoracic ganglion it again forms a prolongation to the side wall just external to the legs while the two portions which press against the sides of the gut, fuse and surround both it and the heart which is now bent ventrally into close proximity to the gut. In the end of the head this portion extends to the dorsal hypodermis to which it attaches. In the thorax the attachment is lost and the lateral attachment reappears.

into two bands, one dorsal to the other. The dorsal portion passes forward
and is divided in two, each supplying part of the brain.
The ventral band splits into a right and a left half, and these diverge
passing around the sides of the brain just anterior to which they end.
In the midbrain the mass of the fat body is more indefinite
and it seems to occupy the greater part of the body cavity, attaching
itself at various points to the epidermis.

Similar masses of tissue occur in various portions of the body.
In particular numerous masses lie one on each side of the ventral
cord in the thorax. In many places the midbrain is surrounded
by a narrow strip of this tissue.

When examined with the microscope the fat body is seen to
consist of a reticular network of fibres enclosing many granular
islands and containing many large round stained bodies.
It seems to be closely bound to an external membrane which
is continuous with the basement membrane of the epidermis where
the fat body is attached to the body wall.

Some are describing a similar structure in *Drosophila* stating
that it contains large masses of fat. It is seen in the
in direct light and pale green in reflected light and which appears to

consist of cubic carbonate salts! In my specimens, with two exceptions I have failed to find any trace of these concretions. These two exceptions however, show unobscured in the reticular tissue what appear to be large granular irregularly shaped masses of a dark blue color. Those ^{than} this I have been unable to ascertain. From their entire absence in most examples I conclude that they are transient formations or else that they were entirely dissolved by the action of the acids used in the processes of preparation except in the two cases mentioned. In those cases the granular masses seemed unaffected by the stains, as one specimen was stained with haematoxylin and the other with Esmarch's Bismarck-carmine, yet the color of the concretions was the same in both.

Circulatory System.

The circulatory system consists of a dorsally placed heart anteriorly continued as an aorta, and of the venous cavity. These contain the plasma and corpuscles constituting the blood.

The heart lies on the median dorsal line just beneath the epidermis, and ends posteriorly just above the junction of the hind gut and hind gut at the pyloric valve (Fig. 15). From its two lateral

a small rounded, a thread of connective tissue runs such a short distance and attaches to the dorsal mesoderm on the same side.

From its hinder end the heart passes forward along the dorsal wall (Fig. 20) to the region of the fore gut. Here it bends down towards the gut, to which it becomes attached by connective tissue (Fig. 21). At the cardiac orifice its structure is unchanged but it becomes slightly smaller, and then being no aorta anterior to this place, it is now termed the aorta. The rest of the aorta is now in contact with the fore gut.

Passing forward we find the relations of the aorta changing: at the front portion of the notothorax (Fig. 23) it becomes flattened, and at the back of the head (Fig. 25) more than half encircle the oesophagus.

A little farther forward it entirely surrounds the gut. The walls of which are bathed on all sides with blood, that portion of the aortal wall which was reflected around the gut apparently disappearing, or else forming a part of the external limiting membrane (Fig. 26). Just behind the brain (Fig. 27) the aorta which still encircles the oesophagus stretches downwards till its ventral wall comes in contact with the suboesophageal sanguon. Beyond this point I have seen no more of the aorta as a vessel definitely, but from a study of a number of specimens I am inclined to think that it breaks up into a large number of small

muscle so short as hardly to deserve the name, which goes directly into the body cavity.

The heart is held in place by five pairs of alar muscles, placed between the second and third thoracic, third thoracic and first abdominal, first and second, second and third, and third and fourth abdominal segments. These muscles pass laterally to the dorsal wall on each side where they attach themselves to the hypodermis between the dorsal and dorso-lateral bands of longitudinal muscles of the body wall. They are triangular in outline, broadening as they approach the heart, near which they form two layers, one passing to the dorsal surface, and the other to the ventral surface and there ramifying (Fig. 9)

In the space thus left between these two layers, the heart wall is bent inward and in the hollow thus formed is a small ostium opening into the cavity of the heart. The ostia appear to be in direct communication with the body cavity, as is the anterior end of the aorta, and the greatest portion of the circulation seems to be accomplished in the spaces between the rat body and the body wall. Valves were not observed in the ostia of the heart but are probably present. The walls of the heart have an outer muscular coating and in some cases invaginations of the

Blood capillaries occur in all parts of the circulation system and in the body cavity. They are circular in outline and have a prominent nucleus. Their number appears to be very great.

Where the blood is aerated is uncertain as there is no tracheal system present, but this question will be recurrd to later.

NERVOUS SYSTEM.

The nervous system consists of a supraoesophageal ganglion or brain, joined by a double commissure enclosing the oesophagus to a suboesophageal ganglion and following which, and joined to it and each other by double commissures are three ganglia situated in the prothorax, mesothorax and metathorax respectively.

Nicollet (47) states that in the Collembola there are three ventral ganglia, two thoracic, and one abdominal one related to the reproductive functions; but he is clearly in error. Sommer (55) speaking of *Tomocerus*, says that it has a brain, a sub-oesophageal ganglion, and four ventral nerve roots: three thoracic and one abdominal. Lubbock (56) says the nervous system of *Tomocerus* consists of five ganglia two of which the supra- and sub-oesophageal are the brain. The linear species have generally two

ganglia in the thorax and one in the abdomen." If these observations can be given any value it indicates that the number of ganglia varies in different species and that no general statement for the group can be made.

The brain of *Simulida* is rather oval in outline when viewed from above; its base and transverse is that of the body of the animal.

It rests closely upon the fore gut, over the sides of which it is continued down and which it more than half surrounds. (figs. 34, 35.)

A stout nerve leads forward on each side from the lower part of the anterior face, which becomes prolonged as the antennal nerve (fig. 37).

Farther back the dorso-lateral portion of each side becomes ventrally continued off forming the pleural nerve and a small pleural nerve which almost immediately divides into five branches passing to the nerve roots of the side. These branches are termed the lateral nerves (fig. 36).

In this same ventral view also, the ventral prolongations of the brain around the oesophagus form a trunk on each side, which passes downward and joins the sub-oesophageal anglion, thus forming the circum-oesophageal commissure (fig. 38). Posterior to this point the brain abruptly terminates.

The *Simulida* is very similar to the *Simulium* in its general appearance.

in pairs. It gives off from each a pair of single nerve trunks on each side and it is joined to the metathoracic ganglion by a

The metathoracic ganglion (Figs. 39, 40) appears to result from the fusion of two. About one third of its length from its anterior end it gives off a pair of large nerves which almost immediately branch. Near its posterior end it gives off a pair of small nerves, and at its posterior end two large nerve trunks which pass backward along the ventral side of the abdomen (Figs. 34, 45, v.n.), to the fifth segment. Here they break up, the largest branches passing to the genital glands close to where these enter the genital ducts. Between the metathoracic ganglion and the fifth segment there are a number of branches to the different segments of the abdomen.

In the feet, especially in the two most distal points the nerve fibres enter small ganglia each consisting of two or three cells (Figs. 46, 47).

In these cells are very large, deeply staining nuclei.

Histology of the nervous system offers little of interest. The brain and other ganglia have an external layer of connective tissue. The brain cells are small, and are surrounded by numerous small

while the inside stain, especially Figs. 30-32. These cells seem to be aggregated into lobes in a slight degree. Beside the ganglion cells there is a central portion which does not stain and shows some of the nerve fibres passing in various directions. Over the surface of the brain and ventral ganglia is a rough, dense layer of connective tissue.

In the ventral ganglia the unstained fibrillar mass is in two bundles surrounded by ganglion cells Fig. 32, and these bundles often extend a short distance into the connective tissue between the ganglia.

Near where each nerve trunk leaves the central nervous system a large nucleus of nerve material (Fig. 33) is found. This may be just where the nerve enters the ganglion Fig. 33 or in the nerve itself Fig. 33' and in the latter case this may be near the ganglion or at some little distance from it.

That these large ganglion cells — for such they must be — are nerve cells is evident, but their size as compared with that of the ganglion cells of the ganglia is so great that I am at a loss for a satisfactory explanation and I can find no description of any such nerve cells

hairs been observed in any strigosity.

The two abdominal striae appear to contain no sanguiferous cells anywhere in their course.

Sense organs.—

These organs are quite well developed and are of great interest as they have been but little studied and the functions of some are wholly unknown.

Tactile Organs.— Long bristles plentifully distributed at intervals over the entire surface of the body have every indication of being tactile organs. They are especially abundant around the mouth and on the antennae where they form a dense clump at the 4th seg. to.

A fortunate longitudinal section of an antenna (Fig. 47) shows at the base of a bristle a small bit of nervous tissue from which one nerve fibre passes up into the bristle while another passes out to join the antennal nerve.

~~Some of these nerves may pass from the base of the bristle to the~~

A problematical organ, first discovered by Ringel in 54, in *Campodea* is present here, but in a more complicated form. As described for *Campodea* it is a small hooked organ near the 1st seg.

antenna. No description of its histology was given and its function is unknown.

In *Collembo* it occurs on the upper inner side of the antenna near the tip of the terminal joint (Figs. 40, 48). It is trilobed and its base rests in a slight depression of the cuticle. In section, Fig. 47, we see that the lobes are only separate in their outer halves, uniting in the half nearest the joint. The lobes are smooth and follow the surface of the hypodermis which lies immediately beneath them. A good sized nerve leads to the organ.

Its function can at present be only surmised, but the three lobes are so placed relative to each other that they might easily be supposed to serve in the same manner as the three dimensions of space. Some species of *Collembo* are wholly blind, while others have only such simple eyes that their vision must be at best extremely poor and from these considerations and from the location of the organs in question I am inclined to regard them as organs of form supplementing the sense of touch.

Eyes. Compound eyes do not occur in any of the *Collembo* and the number and arrangement of the ocelli appear good specific and

generic character."

Templatoria has one, *Archidia* six, *Tomocerus* seven and *Eurygaster* eight ocelli on each side. They are usually joined in a mass of pigment

on each side of the eye, and are slightly raised from the surface of the hypodermis, which is smooth. Vertical sections (fig. 42) show that each consists of a small elliptical mass of epithelium lying beneath the surface of the hypodermis and containing four nuclei which form a small central mass of pigment which is the ocellus itself. The hypodermis is thin.

When the ocellus is seen in the case of an insect in which the structure of the ocellus is not so simple as in the case of our cells, the hypodermis is thin and the ocellus is not so simple as in the case of our cells. The hypodermis is thin and the ocellus is not so simple as in the case of our cells.

Post Antennal Organ.— This curious structure (fig. 41, p.a.o.) was discovered by Laboritese who proposed to call it the organ, postantennal.

a corresponding structure is present in some species which have no
celli, and the structure suggested the term "post-antennal" which has
been generally adopted.

Laboulbène *sur les organes de la respiration* *et de la circulation*
par des espaces colorés tels que les représente la figure 7; leur couleur
est très-noire. Le nombre des cercles rapprochés varie de 7 à 8, le plus
ordinairement il y en a 7 mais je dois noter que j'en ai trouvé parfois
8 d'un côté et 7 de l'autre. Sur les jeunes individus la disposition
est très curieuse, la figure 9 en donne une idée; il existe alors 22 à
24 espaces comprimés et serrés les uns contre les autres avec un
espace central libre; le tout rappelle la forme du fruit chez les plantes
crucifères. J'ai vu cette même forme chez *Hydra* et les *Siphon*. Lorsque
soin que j'ai mis à chercher si du point central il naissait un
poil allongé ou toute autre production dermique, je dois dire que
je n'en ai point trouvé.

In the examples I have examined, the organ consists of an
irregular circle of oral bodies with an external cuticular covering and
an internal portion filled with black pigment and connected with
the hypodermis beneath. The number of oral bodies varies from
seven to nine, and like *Laboulbène* I have observed a few

specimens with seven on one side and eight on the other.

The usual number however, is seven.

These organs occupy a slight depression on each side of the head between the antenna and ocelli. Near the organ the vibrations of the antenna cease, and over the surface of the organ itself it lies smooth. Fig. 73!

Focusing more nearly than is represented in Figs. 41 and 44, a faint circle appears at the inner end of each oral body. Vertical sections Fig. 73 show this circle to be the outline of a pedicle or stalk on which each organ is mounted and through the centre of which connection between the pigmented protoplasm occupying the centre of these bodies (shown in Fig. 73) and the protoplasm of the brain is maintained.

The junction of this organ is unknown. I have endeavored to determine more connection with the brain but in account of the amount of pigment surrounding it I have been unsuccessful. In one instance I thought I discovered a nerve leading from the brain just anterior to the optic lobe, to it, but while such a nerve from the brain certainly passes in that direction it enters the pigment mass a little to one side, and beyond that point I have

failed to follow it.

The function of this organ is unknown. One is naturally inclined to consider it as in some way possessing a secret power, but there is no evidence supporting this view and the structure does not materially aid in a decision.

Abdominal shield.

The abdominal shield or scutellum is in *Stomatopoda* an organ of great interest. Its form and relations differ greatly in different species and a description of its comparative structure in different forms, and a discussion as to its functions is necessary for each consideration.

In *Stomatopoda* *maritima* it is a large protuberance on the ventral side of the first abdominal segment. It is divided into halves by a median longitudinal suture, so that it may be either considered a bilobed structure, or as formed by a pair of separate protuberances pressing together. Cross sections of the animal in this segment show that the cuticula follows all the folds of the surface, Fig. 39. The same is true in *Stomatopoda* *maritima*.

Beneath the cuticula on each side of the shield the *Stomatopoda*

shows its normal structure and this is unchanged on the lateral
sides of the vesicle itself. At the tip of each lobe however its
structure changes and is changed to form a group of large granules
placed side with large isolated nuclei. The cells beneath
the cuticle of the longitudinal cleft, in which the small protuberances
of the cuticle are absent. Several muscles pass from the body
wall into these lobes which may thus be retracted in some measure.

Loading forward from the abdominal vesicle on the median line
in Fig. 33, in the mesothorax, and in Fig. 32 under the head. This tube
originates at the base of the median cleft at the anterior end of the vesicle
and is formed of a pair of outgrowths of the abdominal wall
which are united near the middle. The two tubes each other
to form the tube from the middle of the vesicle to the head with a
groove separating them. In both figures the cuticle and
sclerites have been torn apart, and the former has preserved most
of its original structure.

Farther forward the two outgrowths instead of remaining to the head
fuse together and in this manner form a single tube Fig. 32.

In the postero-lateral and dorsal regions of the head is a mass of

cells which I at first supposed to be the salivary glands, Fig. 29. Their histological appearance is that of salivary glands and on each side of the head a convoluted duct (Fig. 30) leads downward, then forward to the buccal cavity. Here it is joined by the duct from the other side of the head and the median duct then turns upward and to the posterior end of the median cleft of the mouth, gaining a continuous channel. Here I may mention I found that instead of leading upward to enter the buccal cavity it went downward passing through the ventral cleft of the mouth (Fig. 31) and communicated directly with the tube leading forward from the submental vesicle.

I have devoted rather a long time to a careful study with high powers, of about twenty-five specimens only examined by previous workers and in the process of this study I have been able to verify the position of salivary glands, and with ducts leading to and from the buccal cavity, and have found other functions.

It is possible that they may have a connection with the buccal cavity, also, by some branch from the main duct, but I have failed to find any such arrangement.

The histology of the gland and of the ducts is similar to that

of the salivary glands and ducts of the higher insects. The cells of the gland (Fig. 28) are granular, with prominent nuclei; those of the duct are cubical with indistinct boundaries (Fig. 30) and smaller nuclei.

Ventral Spines.—

In young examples of this species, Ryder (6) describes a rudimentary pair of processes on the ventral surface, pointing forward from the anterior edge of the fourth abdominal segment.

The structure is in the form of a rudimentary spine, and has the appearance of a spine in the adult. In the same species, however, in sections its nearly spherical masses of cells slightly resembling gland cells in a stage of degeneration, separated from the hypodermis by the fat body which here lines the body wall (Fig. 45).

What these masses represent I do not know unless they are the rudiments of the structure described by Ryder as a stage of degeneration, remaining after all external traces of the structure is lost. If it could be proved that this is the case it is of much interest, as indicating that the difference between the spines of Collembola, and those which possess a developed spine are due to a degeneration of the former group.

The genital organs lie ventro-lateral to the abdominal portion;
the digestive tract but may extend forward into the mesothorax. Both
the male and female organs consist of a pair of simple tubes of
varying diameter containing the reproductive elements. At their
anterior ends these tubes are attached by a cord of connective tissue
which passes forward and joins the ventral body wall. Posteriorly
each tube gives into a duct which soon unites with that of the
other to form a single median duct leading to the anus.
In the female a ventral diverticulum from this portion of the duct
is also present. The genital opening is situated at the tip of a
small papilla on the hinder edge of the fifth abdominal segment
on the middle line of the ventral surface of the body.

Female Genital Organs.—

The female genital organs are situated in the
ventro-lateral region of the body, and when distended with eggs may be traced dorsally till posteriorly
they become dorsal to it. Externally the tubes are covered in a
sheet of dense connective tissue, within which lie cells of various
sizes containing very large nuclei, and a large number of

gold surface.

The anterior end of the ovum (Fig. 56) is drawn out into a narrow tube which is filled with granular protoplasm and small oval nuclei. As the tube is drawn out, the nuclei become more spherical and pass to one side, along the wall of which they form a sort of germinal ridge. The nuclei increase rapidly in size and gather the protoplasm about them forming cells (Fig. 57). These cells are pushed out from the germinal ridge by cells forming in a similar way. These cells are in turn pushed out by those which are forming in the same way, and so on. The cells are pushed out across it (Fig. 58).

Soon a sort of degradation occurs, many of the cells of each row becoming completely destroyed. In this change the nuclear chromatin breaks the way, forming irregular scattered granules, and this change continues till only a few cells are left. Whether or not one cell can give rise to more than one, I cannot say.

The cells are at first small, but rapidly enlarging, and gradually become

the yolk which is very abundant in each ovum.

As the ova pass backward along the ovarian tube, they in some way require an enclosing membrane, but how and just where, I cannot say. Even near the opening of the oviduct each ovum has several cells of the row from which it was formed still intact and the final breaking down of these cells must occur very late in the maturation of the ovum.

Passing from the ovary is a narrow oviduct (Fig. 53) consisting of granular cuboidal epithelial cells, resting on a delicate tunica propria, and containing small spherical nuclei.

The oviducts of the two sides soon unite, and the two together form the vagina, which has a wall of large columnar cells, broader on their attached edges

and contain prominent nucleoli.

The cells rest upon a tunica propria, continuous with that of the oviducts, and bear on their faces which form the lumen, a chitinous cuticle (Fig. 54).

From the ventral side of the vagina a small diverticulum passes forward (Figs. 53, 54) which may possibly be a receptaculum seminis, and which is slightly hooked at its anterior end.

The cells of this diverticulum are quite granular and the cell walls

are less distinct than those of the vagina, and fewer nuclei are present. Externally the cells rest upon the tunica propria, and internally they are lined by a continuation of the cuticle of the vagina which here forms distinct longitudinal folds, forming the lumen of the diverticulum.

No circular muscles are present around these ducts, but dilator muscles — dilator vaginae — are present, leading to the body wall (fig. 53).

At the genital opening the cuticle of the ducts becomes continuous with the cuticle of the external surface of the body.

Sexual Organs. —

The testes, like the ovaries, are a pair of long tubes extending backward from the mesothorax. They differ greatly in their histological structure at different stages of maturity.

The immature testis is shown in cross section in fig. 49. It is surrounded by a dense layer of connective tissue, and consists of a mass of protoplasm containing numerous small nuclei. The nuclei are arranged in a regular pattern, and are surrounded by a thin layer of cytoplasm. At this age the whole testis has the same

structure. Further development begins at the posterior end, and
moving forward from that point successively earlier stages of the
development are met with.

If we examine a mature testis we find at the anterior end the
structure shown in Fig. 57. Further back the structure changes, as seen
in Fig. 59, the granules becoming more concentrated and septa
appearing. A little behind this point the granules elongate and from
them pass fine fibres or threads which form bundles lying in various
directions (Fig. 50). The nuclei are still present, scattered through the
substance of the testis, and at one point a structure slightly resembling
a germinal ridge occurs (Fig. 50, g.r.). The appearance of this part of
the testis is also shown in longitudinal section in that portion of Fig. 58
near the line AB.

Behind this the structure soon changes. The entire substance begins
to undergo degeneration; the threads become lost, the septa disappear, and
we get a condition shown in Fig. 60, and along the line CD, of Fig. 55.

Some time more comes when the granules are still present in
small numbers, Fig. 61, and along the line EF, of Fig. 58, and soon a
condition is reached when the granules are almost entirely
lost, as shown in Fig. 62. The granules are still present in small

and indistinct cell boundaries. A somewhat similar appearance of that portion of the granular mass nearer the centre of the tubule may also be observed (Fig. 55) forming a zone separating the unchanged granular mass along the line $2-2'$ from the mass of fat globules and spermatozoa in the centre of the tubule. The line S.H. of Fig. 55 crosses the mass of fat globules, and also a portion of the separating zone. Passing back the fat globules increase in number and nearly fill the posterior part of the testis, and many of them are multilobed. Spermatozoa with elongated heads are common.

This process of spermatogenesis may be summarized as follows. The granular groups (Fig. 49) become greatly developed and form distinct groups containing elongated granules (Fig. 50). This structure is soon broken down and a quite homogeneous mass results, containing many deeply staining bodies like the granules of the earlier stages (Fig. 60). These granules soon become more prominent, while the remainder of the substance present, collects around the scattered nuclei present, forming epithelial cells. In these cells or by modifications of them, the fat globules and spermatozoa are formed and make their way into the lumen of the testis.

I have not made an accurate description of spermatogenesis in *Helicoverpa*.

which seems to agree with this process, and I have therefore endeavored to represent only such conditions of structure as were plainly to be seen, without an attempt to explain the various changes undergone.

The testis opens into a short vasa deferens consisting of two cuboidal epithelial cells resting on a tunica propria. The vasa deferentia soon unite and form an ejaculatory duct (Figs. 51, 52, 63) lined by a shagreened cuticle continuous with the cuticle of the outer surface of the body. In some specimens (Fig. 63) this is thrown into ridges on the ventral wall of the duct, but in other cases (Fig. 51) these appeared to be entirely absent.

Below the cuticle are large granular columnar epithelial cells with distinctly staining nuclei. At the external opening of the ejaculatory duct these cells bend each way and are continued along the surface, retaining their columnar character in some instances. ~~At the external opening of the duct~~ hypodermic cells (Figs. 51, 63). These cells rest upon a tunica propria continuous with that of the vasa deferentia. No circular muscles occur, but dilator muscles (Fig. 63) running to various parts of the body wall, and serving by their contraction to enlarge the duct, are met with.

Moltings.—

The process of molting is much the same as in other Arthropods. The external cuticula the cuticle of the fore gut, mid gut and of the genital ducts is shed with each molt.

In the mid gut, just before ecdysis a peculiar change occurs. The nuclei of the epithelium divide, and one of the two which are thus formed in each cell passes towards the free face of the cell while the other passes towards the base. The cell nuclei now become indistinct and determination occurs. The outer half of each cell being thrown off. These molted cells collect in the lumen of the mid gut and remain there (Figs. 14, 15) till the chitin of the remainder of the body is thrown off, when this is also removed. The outer edges of the cells remaining form a new "Häutchen" and resume their normal condition.

General Considerations—

Two problems in connection with the structure of the Collembola require farther consideration. These are: 1. the relations of the fat body to the hypodermis, and an examination of the nature of granulation, the fat body, & the position of the

abdominal vessel and of the glands in the head to which it is joined
by the small ventral tube and the homologies of these parts.

The fat body of the higher insects is regarded as of mesoblastic
origin and any protoplasmic relations it may acquire with the
hypodermis must therefore be of a secondary nature.

In *Simulium* however, because of a certain mode of
development the structure is epiblastic and not homologous with
the fat body of other insects.

If we consider the method of formation of the body cavity in
arthropods as described by Sedgwick, '97, for Peripatus we find
that in the solid mesoblast a series of splits appear, enlarge, fuse
and form cavities of varying form and size, constituting a
body cavity of the type termed by Lankester a haemocoel.

As the mesoblast on the one side lies closely against the hypoblastic
mesenteron and on the other against the epiblast which is to form the
hypodermis, the relations of the fat body to these may be explained
as follows.

The layer of mesoblast cells next to the split becomes flattened
to form a permanent cuticular layer known as the cuticle.

Where the mesoblast is several layers, cells in thickness the

middle layers do not become flattened but form the mass of
the fat body of the arthropod. Where the body cavity is so large
that but a single layer of mesoblast cells remains between it and
the hypodermis this layer, as elsewhere, becomes mesothelial and
forms the inner covering of the body cavity.

In connection with the fat body, forms the external limiting membrane
which is lacking where the mesodermal cells of the fat body and of the
gut meet. At these places however there seems to be a sort of
membrane between the mesoderm of the gut which has sometimes a common
origin and the fat body. This membrane may perhaps be derived from
a flattening of the layer of cells of the fat body which is nearest to the
mesoderm and would correspond to the limiting membrane of
the haemocoel, and it is possible that a membrane similarly formed
between the hypodermis and the fat body marks the distinction
between the two, seen in the higher insects. Strands of
mesoblast cells passing through the body cavity or along its walls
have been observed in some insects.

The fat body is so universally present in insects, myriapods
and in *Forficulidae* that it must be looked upon as a very
primitive structure and as already stated appears to be mesoblastic.

in origin. I have failed to observe any protoplasmic connection between the fat body and the hypodermic cells in *Aurelia* but Sommer's observations on *Tomoceros* are correct, notwithstanding the fact that the structure is not in position to the fat body; and which except in its relations to the hypodermis might be regarded without difficulty as mesodermic, as it is not in contact with the fat body. That the structure does form secondary connections with the hypodermis.

Sommer declares in favor of the first of these views and decides that this structure is not homologous with the fat body. His own inclination is to accept the other view, and question the actual existence of protoplasmic connection between the cells of the fat body and of the hypodermis.

The abdominal vesicle has been differently interpreted by different writers. By Latreille and Kolenati it was regarded as a genital organ. Boudet considered it as adhesive, and in *Caudo* the shock of alighting after a jump, and as serving to hold and moisten the sperm. Lubbock and Fullberg consider it an adhesive organ. Kuntze says that mucus is gathered to the mouth from the surface of the body in the anal claws from which it is placed by the "Haptophoren" on the surface of the prey.

that it may possibly have a function similar to that of the oil vesicles.

It differs in structure in different genera. In *Podura litorea* and *humilis* it is a simple sept. tubercle. In *Tomocerus* it is enlarged, forming a tube hooked at the tip. In *Symphyla* it has a similar structure, but "from the end of the tube the animal can project" long delicate tubes provided at their extremity with numerous glands." No one seems to have observed the connection of the little tube leading forward with the vesicle and with the glands in the head.

Remarks:—According to the late Mr. [unclear] spiracles have been observed in *Podura*; but according to my observation their organs of respiration consist merely of an open canal along the under side of the head and the thorax, and it is in the lower end of this canal, under the head, that the tracheal system, when whenever it exists, as in some of the larger *Symphyla*.

This view seems to be unsatisfactory as opposed to the justification: the blood are in no way affected by the contraction of the tube while in connection with the glands. The head seems to indicate that its function must be other than

will be no back - a position from which it has some difficulty in recovering its feet - and if while in this attitude a piece of food is brought within its reach the animal will endeavor to seize it with the feet, but at the same time it will project one or both of the ventral tentacles and apply it or them, as much to the uses mentioned as to the use of the feet.

The comparative studies of Haase 89, on the ventral sacs of *Cedophronella*, *Diplophora*, *Physanura* and the abdominal vessels of *Collembola* and *Isotoma* have led him to some important conclusions as to the structure and functions of the abdominal vessels. I give in his own words these conclusions.

The abdominal vessels in *Collembola* are not abdominal vessels, but are ventral vessels, and are not connected with the abdominal cavity. They are, however, supplied with hemolymph from the abdominal cavity by a large blood vessel, the ventral vessel, which is not connected with the abdominal cavity.

1. The ventral vessel is a large blood vessel, which is not connected with the abdominal cavity.

1. an den Seiten mit strömungsabweisender nur bei vollkommenen Kriechen in Wasser
und in geschlossener Luft können; bei Fortbewegung durch Wasser, wenn
insbes. ein Hindernis und schnelle Durchdringung des angestrichenen
Untergrundes durch Biegebewegungen in der Richtung nach dem Vorderende
des Körpers zu, erfolgt.

2. Beobachtungen über das Kriechen der Poduren an Glaswänden
zeigen, dass der Ventralstrahl dabei oft unterbunden ist und die Strömungs-
säckchen in diesem Falle stets bei Nachhinken.

3. Die Beobachtungen an den Poduren der Gattung *Amphipoda* zeigen, dass die
Ventralstrahlströmungen ebenfalls, dass letztere eine respiratorische
Funktion haben und die Strömungen in der Richtung nach dem Vorderende
des Körpers zu, erfolgt.

4. Die Beobachtungen an den Poduren der Gattung *Amphipoda* zeigen, dass die
Strömungspaar bei *Amphipoda* und *Scalopendrella* durch drei bei *Amphipoda*:
das Tracheenorgan ist in Rückbildung begriffen bei *Lycopodium*
Polygonum und ausserdem erst wenig entwickelt bei *Marchia* mit der
Ausbildung der gemeinsamen Längsströmung erfolgt die Rückbildung
des Ventralstrahls. " Einmal bei *Marchia* ist es deutlich, dass die
Funktion der Längsströmung als beschrieben in *Marchia* im wesentlichen
von *Marchia* abgeleitet.

5. Die Beobachtungen an den Poduren der Gattung *Amphipoda* zeigen, dass die

1852 in Lithonia caerulea Sim.

in the female in opposite segments which the drawings
given by Grassi, De Meijere, indicate as being composed of a pair
of processes, from the seventh sternite and a pair from the eighth.
The figure also shows on each of these segments and upon that which
follows a pair of lateral processes - "Hinterbeine". Grassi says
~~in the female as in the male~~ which is in the "Hinterbeine".
He says: "Bei Lep. saccharinum kommen nur an den zwei vorletzten
Hinterbeinsegmenten Abdominalgriffel vor, und zwar sind dieselben am
achten Segment 2.0. am neunten aber 1.5 mm. lang." Fine he finds
but two pairs instead of three. He states that in a female specimen
the posterior arises as in *Maculipes* which he describes thus: "Die
Hinterbeine zeigen, ähnlich bei den *Maculipes* die 2. und 3. Abdominal-
segmenten Hinterbeinanhängen des achten und neunten Abdominalsegmentes
und umgeben die am Ende des achten oder aber, wie es die Regel scheint,
des neunten Segmentes." The female specimen is now in the collection.

The surface of the body is covered by scales resembling those
of the wings of butterflies, and in many places some groups of bristle-
like hairs which probably have a sensory function.

I am not quite certain as to the species which I have secured, as
while it agrees fairly well with the descriptions of *L. saccharinum* in

the scales instead of 15 scales having prominent to prominent like
Beck's Eelbook, '73. they have nearly twice that number.

The scales are small and thin, and are not
no other was added to the bathing fluids.

Integument. —

The hypodermis contains no pigment and consists of a single layer
of cells with large closely packed nuclei, Fig. 50, and with the cell boundaries
not brought out by the staining used. The cuticula is not covered with
protuberances as in *Stenurida* but is smooth and perforated by the pedicels
of the scales. These, Fig. 51, vary somewhat in form and size.

They are small, conical, and arise between pores and give rise to a
short pedicel which penetrates the cuticula nearly to the hypodermis.

The scales are attached at their anterior ends and their free edges overlap
the scales next posterior to them. It is these scales which give the
silvery gloss to the living animal.

The hairs which are present on some portions appear to have
some connection with the hypodermis, Fig. 52, as the entire thickness of

the skin at these places of attachment appears somewhat wrinkled.

On the dorsal surface of the thorax the cuticularium is attached at the center of the segment, and at the ends of the segment are processes attached. At various places on the body the integument appears to have been folded in on itself to form processes for the attachment of muscles. One such is very noticeable in longitudinal sections of the animal located on the anterior face of the head, which is a very prominent process in a transverse direction.

Muscular System

There is no evidence in the muscles of the head which are more developed in *Lepisma* than in *Strumida*. Other differences in structure are seen but have not been noted.

Histologically there is little worthy of note except that in some places there are bundles of muscle fibers which lie at or near the center of the fibrils. These are present in great abundance. There is a greater tendency to group into bundles than in *Strumida*.

The structure of the muscles of the thorax appears to be the same as that of the head.

Digestive System.—

The mouth is situated on the ventral side of the head and is bounded anteriorly by the labrum which is a broad flattened portion of the ventral integument at that place. Close behind this at the sides of the mouth opening are the mandibles (Fig. 29). These are stout structures with a roughened surface at the base of which is a cluster of short bristles. Behind

The maxillae which next follow are smaller, and consist (Fig. 30) of a *lacinia* bearing two pointed teeth and a few scattered bristles; a rounded *palpus* and a *palpus* which projects at right angles to the maxilla and which is composed of five quite long cylindrical segments, covered with bristles. The *palpus* which follows the *palpus* is about the mouth, consists of a double *lipid* lip and a pair of three jointed *palpi*, with a small plate overlying the basal joint and which is usually regarded as a fourth segment, but which is considered by Grassi whose figure I reproduce here as not constituting any part of the *palpus* proper. The terminal segment of the *palpus* is the largest, is flattened, and bears three bristles (Fig. 31) or more intermediate (Fig. 32) sense organs.

Esophagus in the mouth is the only opening which leads into the alimentary canal. This passes dorsal and somewhat forward for a short distance, then turns posteriorly passes beneath the brain through the circumoesophageal commissure, and enters the thorax, gradually increasing in diameter and changing in its histological features. This portion, which extends to about the end of the fourth abdominal segment, may for convenience be termed the oesophagus, though it passes insensibly into the pharynx at its anterior end.

The pharynx (Fig. 2) is composed of four layers. Resting on a basement membrane tunica propria is an epithelial layer which is thrown into very irregular and strongly marked folds. In this layer nuclei occur, but no cell walls are apparent. Separating the epithelium from the lumen of the pharynx is a layer of cuticle which follows every epithelial fold. External towards the cavity to the basement membrane is a layer of circular striated muscle. These are closely packed side by side at the beginning of the pharynx and show frequent nuclei which unlike ^{those in} striated muscle have no separate leaving a little space between each two. No transverse muscle are present. External to all is a connective tissue

short - the lining membrane of the body cavity. In the
anterior the epithelial folds become smaller, and finally disappear.
Fig. 78

Near the end of the fourth abdominal segment the oesophagus
terminates in a tube less than half the size of the oesophagus.

This tube which is called by Kowalewsky the crop, has a slight
ventral curvature. Near the end of the fifth segment six
longitudinal chitinous bands appear in its walls, their bases
dividing into six parts the layer of circular muscle which is here
greatly developed. These bands project into the lumen of the
crop and are so arranged that the circular muscle of the
crop is divided into six segments.

A layer of longitudinal muscles situated in the anterior region
arises on the oesophagus near the end of the third abdominal
segment and passes back to this region, but its exact distribution
I have failed to ascertain. Beyond the chitinous bands

of teeth the lumen of the digestive tract becomes smaller, turning down to
the mesenteric region, the middle of the tract is called
the mesenteric portion of the tract - the stomach.

The stomach at its anterior end consists of six distinct regions,
the anterior end being rounded to the right and then
leading to the end of the oesophagus. The central pouch on each
side passes with its pedicle as it passes backward and into this
from the two more lateral ones on each side, and the crop on the
ventral side. The stomach is divided into six segments
segment where it abruptly turns to the left and then towards the head,
forming a half circle, where it ends. The ileum which now enters
gives off the main intestine tube, and turns posteriorly, completing the circle
and passing dorsal to the stomach. About one segment posterior to
this point it enters the rectum, which is a large irregular shaped
chamber with a number of diverticula. This finally narrows into a
straight tube, the walls of which dilator muscles pass in different directions to the body wall.
The stomach, fig. 77, has a well developed layer
of muscle, and indistinct cell walls. There are a large
number of small muscles in the epithelium, which have
a standard appearance. Lutescence 77, however, is not

a similar condition in *Archidius maritimus* says that the same

secretions are in the which are not considered as having a

secretory nature. The ends of the *Archidius*

are also what appears to be a *Hirschmannium* which has been

proven to be a layer of circular, striped muscle, and a few

The *Archidius* fig. 75, has the same layers, the *Hirschmannium* being

colored in a thin electron micrograph showing the portion of the digestive tract

of the *Archidius* which is the *Hirschmannium* which is the

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the lower circular muscle of the ileum.

The section of the jejunum has its epithelium thrown into many prominent folds. The cells are tall, columnar with very indistinct boundaries and with the nuclei near the bases of the cells. The epithelium greatly in appearance from that of the stomach. The serous membrane follows all the folds of the epithelium and the circular muscles fibres ramify over it in all directions. The chitinous intima bears a few small, short spines.

The salivary gland opens into the pharynx just in front of the ileum. In a median duct which leads back, close beneath the chitinous intima, is a little opening. It is a small duct, some the opening of which is at the base of the chitinous intima. The duct is lined by a chitinous cuticle.

The Malpighian tubes, Figs. 77, 78, are long convoluted tubules which arise from the digestive tract close to the junction of stomach and ileum. Their number is not determined. Kandle found six, and others found more. They are small, thin, and have a very delicate structure.

... a dissection of the digestive system of *Lepisma saccharinum* but since. From what he says however, I infer that he regards the number as variable. I have been unable to ascertain the number in the examples which I have examined, but feel certain that there are at least four.

The tubes, ^{each} consist of a single layer of cells with the walls rounded externally and internally (fig. 77) and none visible between neighboring cells. The nuclei are quite large, round or oval, and scattered through the protoplasm, ~~there are also some in the lumen of the tubes~~ also occur in the lumen. The protoplasm of the cells stains quite deeply. Whether there is a chitinous intima lining the lumen, or not I cannot say.

Fat Body.—

The histological appearance of the fat body is much the same in *Lepisma* as in *Strumida*. Its distribution is not so sharply defined however, and can be best described in saying that it occupies almost the entire body cavity while through it pass muscles, nerve etc. Its relation to the hypodermis is also the same as in *Strumida* except that where the two are contiguous there may sometimes be observed what is

apparent a delicate filament membrane as in the skin, 2, 5.

The heart is situated as in annulids, on the dorsal median line, and extends forward from that position of the abdomen where the ileum bends downward, from the base of the tentacles. The heart is smaller and, as the aorta continues to the prothorax where it bends down and comes to lie close above the oesophagus. Then it has reached a joint dorsal to the sub-oesophageal ganglion it becomes lost. The histological structure of the heart is similar to that of the annulids.

The posterior end of the heart instead of forming a rounded closed end becomes much narrower as the common trunk or trunk for one or two blood coagulables to lie in, side by side, while its walls become very muscular (Fig. 77). This portion of the dorsal vessel becomes attached to the dorsal hypodermis, and finally, near the base of the median anal stilet gives with a flaring mouth like that of a trumpet, into the body cavity. Near this point it is surrounded and firmly held in place by numerous bands of muscles leading from the dorsal body wall to a median diverticulum of the rectum lying just beneath. One or two of the more median: these muscles appear to

ventral side of this blood vessel and become attached to the hypodermis again thus drawing it in a sort of sling. Figures 79 and 80 represent sections of this blood vessel out of the heart region drawn

I have met with no description of the posterior portion of the dorsal vessel which agrees with what I have just described, and I am doubtful of the accuracy of my observations. The same thing occurring in all my specimens, however, and the confirmation of the above description by a number of sections and one transverse section, I consider it neither an individual variation, nor the result of a too hasty examination, but that it is a normal feature in this animal. As to its function I can only suggest that as it is highly muscular and near the posterior end of the body, it may be the chief contractile portion of the vessel.

The blood corpuscles, fig. 80, apparently differ in no way from those of *Stomatopoda*.

Tracheal system.

A tracheal system is present but owing to a lack of material for special examination on this point I can say but little.

The stomata run into tracheae which have a continuous lining, with annular chitine strands. The tracheae run chiefly in a longitudinal direction and with but little branching. Almost any anterior section of the abdomen will show two trunks cut transversely, lying quite near the lateral surfaces of the body.

Nervous System

The nervous system comprises a brain or super-oesophageal ganglion, a sub-oesophageal ganglion and by a circum-oesophageal commissure the thoracic and eight abdominal ganglia.

The two first mentioned ganglia are situated in the head: the first thoracic and first two abdominal ganglia are fused together (Fig. 51), and the seventh and eighth abdominal ganglia are also fused (Fig. 52).

From a brain, the antennae and eyes are innervated, also from the sub-oesophageal ganglion, the different mouthparts.

Next to the brain the main nervous features of resemblance to the brain of the cricket, Fig. 53. But I shall not attempt a description of its parts. Its trace of giant cells near

the brain - the giant cells - which are found in the

the same.

Sense Organs.—

The ^{only} sense organs which I have observed are the tactile organs and the eye.

Tactile Organs: These differ little from those of *Stomoda* except that at their bases there appears to be a distinct joint with the cuticula (Fig. 51) which resembles those similarly located in higher insects.

The bristles are scattered over the ^{whole} body, but are especially abundant on the head. The long and slender antennae and the three anal cerci which contain no muscles, have each, a nerve fibre and are true tactile organs. It is such trilobed organ as that described in *Stomoda* was found.

Eye: The eye is not an aggregation of ocelli, but is a true compound eye directly comparable to that of other Crustaceans, and very different from that of *Stomoda*.

Each is composed of twelve ommatidia which form a cluster of a hexagonal shape. The consequence of the circular shape of each ommatidium (Fig. 54). The external part—the cornea—of each ommatidium is large, and immediately beneath it are two large cells which constitute the rhabdom. The rhabdom is thicker at the base of the ommatidium than at the periphery and is therefore somewhat conical in section.

Just internal to the cornea is the crystalline cone, which is a
dense, conical mass of chitinous matter filling the entire ommatidium at
that level. Just external to it and filling the space remaining at its
base is a group of small cells constituting the vitellae. Filling the immediate
periconeal portion of the crystalline cone, and pressing inward,
is a rather cone pyramidal chitinous mass - the chathomere.

Immediately surrounding this, and prolonged beyond its apex are
a series of pigmented cells forming the retinulae. The prolongations of
these cells perforate a basement membrane just internal to the group
of vitellae and come in this manner in contact with the
chathomere. Each ommatidium and filling a space between ommatidia
is a mass of small pigment cells.

If the parts of an ommatidium be pushed away from the central axis
in all directions the outer layers, moving most, while the retinulae retain their
natural position, a pit is formed. If this arrangement is persisted until
a point is reached where the retinulae are left without the pigment and the chitinous portions
of the two outer circles are reduced to narrow bands and not

of the retinulae are left without the pigment and the chitinous portions
of the two outer circles are reduced to narrow bands and not

This description of the eye is in harmony with the recent theory as

to the origin of the compound eye figured by Mr. Huxley, '20' to whom
I am indebted for many suggestions and from whose paper I obtained
the idea of the method of representation used in Fig. 20.

In some respects the compound eye seems to differ from that described
as required by Huxley, '20 and appear to form one of the simplest compound
eyes yet described among the tracheate Arthropoda.

No trace of any post-ventral organ occurs.

Salivary Glands.

The position of these organs and their histological structure
is nearly the same as in Crustacea, and because of this I will here
omit a separate description of them. Grassi, '89, showing their
position and form in the adult male, Fig. 85 and young immature
female, Fig. 87. These figures do not represent the positions of the
ducts which are of epibranchial origin.

General Considerations.—

When compared with the Crustacea, the general appearance of the
male Anura. This is shown by the presence in the corner of the
operculum, several, well developed mouthparts including a pair of
mandibles, a pair of maxillae, a pair of labia, a pair of palps, a pair of

Muscular portion of the heart, a tracheal system; by the modifications of the different portions of the digestive tract and the histology of the brain and eye.

That the modifications of the digestive tract are not the result of a simple adaptation to the nature of the food, but of a more or less complex adaptation to the nature of the food, is a fact which is not only proved by the histology of the digestive tract, but also by the fact that the same modifications are found in the digestive tract of the same species of animals living in different parts of the world. That the modifications of the digestive tract are not the result of a simple adaptation to the nature of the food, but of a more or less complex adaptation to the nature of the food, is a fact which is not only proved by the histology of the digestive tract, but also by the fact that the same modifications are found in the digestive tract of the same species of animals living in different parts of the world.

Ernstine View as to the Relationships of Arthropods

This portion of my subject has been prepared from material collected from so many sources that it is impossible to give the exact reference for each statement. A list of the literature examined, however, will be found at the end of the article.

The division of the arthropods into Crustacea and Tracheata is one that has long existed. The latter consists of three large groups — Insecta, Arachnida and Myriapoda — and a number of smaller ones, and the various views expressed as to the relations of these subdivisions have varied. The division of these arthropods as a group, the Tracheata, might be accepted as a natural group, the general opinion being that the group was by no means to be accepted as a natural one.

Schell ('66) advanced the view that all the Tracheata originated from a common ancestor — some primitive Crustacean which he termed the *Loxopoda*; a view already suggested by Fultz Miller ('4).

He also advanced the view that the Crustacea and the Tracheata were very early in its development. This is the so-called *Loxopoda*.

More recent studies have resulted in the recognition of another
view — that the insects and chiroptera had a common but ear-
lier ancestor, and that the insects and chiroptera were also derived
from the same branch of Crustacea and chiroptera and
which were itself derived from some common ancestor.

Before considering these and other views more fully, let us
ascertain the prevailing opinions as to the relations of the smaller groups
of insects to the larger ones.

Limulus is no longer a form of doubtful affinities, the works of
Lankester, Huxley and others having, with conclusive demonstration,
its close relation to the chiroptera and especially to the Scorpions.
The former is regarded as a branch of the stem from which the
chiroptera and the Scorpions are derived, and the latter as a branch
of the stem.

The Pycnogonida were at first regarded as Crustacea, and later
as chiroptera. The researches of Latreille have led him to the
belief that they are entirely independent of all the other groups of
chiroptera. Schimper, on the other hand, regards
them as both primitive and degraded forms but having

common ancestor with the chirochiroide, and Hermann's words mean the same thing.

The *Chirochiroide* is not a monophyletic group, but Lindemann '85' believes that this should be removed altogether from the *Chirochiroide* and placed among the fresh-water Chetogod names. Huxsorn '87' from a study of their dermal skeleton and appendages is of the same opinion. The *Chirochiroide* is a branch of the *Chirochiroide* before the *Chetogod* branch. On the whole, the phylogenetic position of this group may be considered as uncertain.

Of the groups of the *Chirochiroide* — the *Chirochiroide*, *Chirochiroide*, *Phalangida*, *Podinalpi*, *Scorpiiones*, *Pseudoscorpiones*, *Scolopendridae* and *Centrostomida* — the position of the latter ^{group} is doubtful, showing as it does, many features similar to those of the *Myriostomida* (Brufau '80'). Schindler '87' is of the opinion that the proposal to remove them from the *Chirochiroide* and place them with this group, is unwarranted.

As to the other groups mentioned the general opinion is that all are derived from a common *Chirochiroide* ancestor. Lindemann '85' is of the opinion that, however, regarding the *Chirochiroide* and *Chirochiroide* as separate groups.

arthropod stem.

Peripatus is in many features worm-like; in others myriapod affinities are suggested, while still others appear to point to an independent origin. It is generally placed near the Myriapoda and Insecta, however, and is considered to be a very primitive form.

Passing now to the larger groups, the phylogeny of the insects is a problem presenting much difficulty in its solution. That portion of the view of Huxley ('66) which concerns the insects—that an aquatic Zoia-like form assumed a terrestrial habit and acquired a tracheal respiration—is, for reasons which will presently appear, unsatisfactory.

Another theory—the "Campodea Theory"—has been advanced by Brauer ('91), Lubbock and Packard. This assumes that the primitive

insect ancestor was an aquatic, worm-like, air-breathing larva (campodeiform or leptiform larva) is an indication that the insect insect has similar characters. The amphipod and grub ('cruciform larva') are secondary adaptations, according to this view, and the Hygnum is the most accurate representative of the ancestral form of any insects now living.

The derivation of this form is not agreed upon in the scientific world. The Campodea Theory, Meyer, De Meijere, etc., claims it to have arisen from

some unjointed worm, which formed a point of divergence for all Tracheata and the higher worms are closely related to a form which was the ancestor of the Insecta.

Bauer '80' regards the Insecta as derived from a form in which development of the appendages of the first three post-cephalic segments, and retrogression of those of the other segments occurred.

From this modified form, through the multiplication of homonomous segments, the Myriapoda branched off on one side, and the insects & Apterygotea/primitive wingless insects on the other. Lubbock '79 ..

inclined to trace the Tracheata back to the Tracheata and through them to the Rotifera, while Wood-Mason and Grassi Haase, '80' derive them from the same Tracheata or Loricata. Several other applications of these views are held by various students of the subject.

Of kind theory has also been advanced, chiefly by Eigenmann '81.

He regards the ancestors of Insects as aquatic, breathing in a row of metamerically placed branchial gills on each side of the body, as is seen in the larvae of Ephemeridae at the present day. This form developed from a worm bearing dorsal gills. As this worm for some reason became terrestrial, the pairs of gills on the mesothorax and metathorax became greatly enlarged and rudimentary for locomotion, while the others became torn off, leaving an opening

where the tracheal trunk passed from each gill into the body, as
representative of the stigmalal opening.

Sometimes not unlike this is found in the writings of others.

The above description of insects are in general terms.

The above description of the insects are in general terms.

a higher function, in correlation with a general stigmatal

state of the rest of the organization which is advanced to the

susceptible." The same general conclusion is also

reached by Platani, '71.

This view is a most pleasing one, offering as it does such

a simple explanation of the origin of the stigmatal

while the earliest fossil remains are those of primitive forms
closely resembling the *Orthoptera* *Stigmatal*.

of tracheal gills as an ancestral feature is overestimated, for in some species pinnate similar gills occur on the joints of the legs, the ventral surface of the body, and even between the wings.

As these cannot correspond to the tracheal gills of worms, and as tracheal gills of any kind occur in so few forms, the conclusion

must be that the tracheal gills are a derived character.

It is therefore concluded that the tracheal gills are a derived character.

It is therefore concluded that the tracheal gills are a derived character.

Examining now the various views as to the relation of the Injuripoda to the other Crustaceans, we find a great assistance on the part of the more recent writers, to express their opinions. Placed in all the

earlier students of the group, as an offshoot of the Hexapoda stem or even as the direct ancestor of the Hexapoda, view opposed to these have been very cautiously expressed, and then qualified by statements that too little

known of their anatomy and development to warrant a discussion of the question. 'Cathart' 35 states however, that he regards them

as being remotely descended from some Foripoda like stock, and nothing as to their relations with the Hexapoda. 'Richard' 33 believes

that the Injuripoda branched off from a much more primitive form

than the Hexapoda, and that the Hexapoda are a more

55' miles a growing idea among recent workers when he says it seems possible that the *Hyphalodes* have no connection with the *Hyphalodes*.

Hyphalodes seems to be nearer to the *Hyphalodes* than to any other group, and it may be that these are derived from a common ancestor wholly distinct from that of the *Hyphalodes*.

A consideration of the relations of the various groups is best accomplished by an examination of their stem forms. When these are not in existence their character may be ascertained in part in three ways—
 some Paleontology; the history of their descendants; and the Embryology of them.

In the examination of these sources of evidence all secondary and recent acquisitions, all falsifications of the record, previous development and all modifications must be considered. Difficult as the task is it is rendered far more so by the terrestrial habitat of the *Hyphalodes*, for geological records are far more recent and extreme changes in a terrestrial than in a marine environment, these changes being of course much more rapid in the former than in the latter. It is not to be wondered at therefore, that the various views offered in the past have differed greatly in many regards, and any suggestions offered with our present knowledge, should be only tentative.

The evidence afforded by paleontology is as for other groups very fragmentary. Scudder '80' says: "The earliest insects then were generalized hexapods. Tricodactylota, in which the four wings were equal and simply developed, membranous, and with very simple venation. The fore wings were simple and 'incomplete,' the young leaving the egg in the form of the parent but without wings. The insect which lived in ancient lake before invertebrates. They appeared probably as early as any land plants, certainly by the middle of the Silurian epoch, and continued as a homogeneous type until the end of the Paleozoic period." "In Mesozoic times active differentiation occurred the modern orders of the Diptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera appeared last, in the Liassic and Cretaceous. Since the Tertiary epoch little change in the general features of the insect life has occurred.

Brauer '86' regards this view of Scudder's as incorrect. Instead, he thinks that the paleontological evidence shows that Paleozoic Insects do not contradict the ordinary belief of a Hymenopteran-like ancestor, nor do they form a special order -

1100' can be advanced on the group *Psidiotyphla*.

Then the chief facts derived from this source of evidence are that the oldest known insects were terrestrial with four similar wings, incomplete metamorphosis and that they were already quite highly developed in very early times.

There are also many other facts, the evidence afforded by structure and embryology.

Further evidence comes from the fact that in some insects differing modifications in connection with differences of food, habits, environment and the like may be considered as secondary characters. These characters are not universal. The characters of the Hexapoda these universal features must be collected.

Between the Hexapoda and the other groups we find the following character present in all adult insects.

- I. The body is segmented and bilaterally symmetrical. Division into head, thorax and abdomen is also universal. At least one pair of jointed legs is present on each thoracic segment. Abdominal legs are absent in the insects. In the wingless insects a pair of processes appears on the ventral surface of each abdominal segment. These afterwards disappear, and some of the second

sexual appendages; the abdomen are regarded in some as being derived from them. The presence of wings or of dorsal

derived from them. The presence of wings or of dorsal
~~processes on the 2nd and 3rd segments~~
 On the head occur a pair of jointed antennae and a pair of eyes.

The mouthparts differ much in the different orders, but may all be reduced to modifications of a mandibulate type, with three pairs of jaws and that this condition is the more ancestral is indicated by what ontogenetical evidence we possess.

Exceptions to some of these statements occur, but in every case the reason for the exception can be shown to be secondary adaptation, which does not invalidate the statements above.

The external covering consists of a chitinous layer, secreted by a subjacent cellular layer. Scales and hairs (except sensory hairs) are not secreted.

The digestive system varies much in the different groups, the structure being generally connected with the habits of food and habits. Thus in the cat the mouth opens into a rather a short oesophagus - the esophagus itself - with a duct passing from it to the main alimentary tract, or the stomach, whereby the main tract remains in continuity.

as to form a series of chambers serving a similar purpose. These insects with comparatively immolitions food have long and consolidated alimentary tracts, with various valvular structures to aid in extracting nourishment from the food, while insects in which the alimentary tract is more complicated have simpler digestive organs.

The universal features of the alimentary canal are partially indicated by Embryology. From a study of its development we conclude that a common ancestor is derived from an hypothetical mesenteron and that this common ancestor was commensurate with the exterior by means of two invaginations of the outer surface - the anterior one anterior stomodaeum and the posterior 'proctodaeum'. The mesenteron in the embryo forms a continuous tube. The lining cells of the two invaginations possess this ectodermal property of secreting a chitinous outer layer, which is evident in the adult. By modifications of these three parts of the alimentary canal the many different structures seen in the adult insects are produced.

Quite universal is the presence of a pair of salivary glands.

imagination.

While these may possibly be modifications of another set of structures, the apparently assumed their present functions and position at a very early period of insect phylogeny, and may fairly be regarded as quite ancestral.

18. The body cavity is at least partly filled by a fat body, in the center of which a circulation of blood occurs.

I. The respiratory system in the sub-segments seems to be ancestral or otherwise secondarily adapted forms. Whether tracheae leading to open stigmata, or to closed gills, is the ancestral condition, is a much controverted point which will be considered later. That a tracheal system of some sort is an ancestral feature, however, there can be no doubt, nor that these tracheae were present in pairs in the thorax, and in the anterior (perhaps all) segments of the abdomen.

II. The circulatory system in insects varies little. It consists of a dorsal vessel or heart, which becomes contracted in the thoracic region forming a smaller tube - the aorta. This was probably very nearly its ancestral form.

III. The nervous system of the Terapoda has certain features common to all groups. These are a ganglionic mass above or anterior to the oesophagus — supra-oesophageal ganglion or brain — connected with a similar ganglionic mass posterior to the oesophagus — infra- or sub-oesophageal ganglion — by two nerve cords, one passing on each side of the oesophagus which is the median line of nervous matter. The two nerve cords constitute the supra-oesophageal and sub-oesophageal ganglia. In some insects the supra-oesophageal ganglion is a series of connected ganglia, and in others it is a single mass. The two commissures. Comparison of the nervous system in different insects and in different stages of development indicate that the general plan shows a fusion of the supra-oesophageal and sub-oesophageal ganglia into one for each segment of the body, even also a tendency to concentration in the head and fuse with one another. Resulting from this, the number of ventral ganglia varies in different insects. Similarly, some insects have ganglia which are dense rounded masses of nerve cells and fibres; in others they show traces of having been at some time two ganglia side by side, and in still others the fusion is even less complete.

Thus we may assume as probable, two parallel 'bands' of nerve cords with an enlargement in each band anterior and another posterior to the oesophagus and one enlargement in each of the remaining segments of the body. Probably the two ganglia anterior to the oesophagus had already fused to form the super-oesophageal ganglion. The suboesophageal ganglion is probably the result of the fusion of the ganglia of several segments but its consideration will be better reserved until a more early period.

III. Insects are always unisexual. The essential organs are paired or show traces of modification from such a condition and then to the extent of median but of distinct origin (certain exceptions do not affect this general statement). The secondary sexual features differ greatly in different kinds and have no phylogenetic value, being comparatively recent acquisitions.

Some of these points demand a fuller consideration. The question as to the origin of the mouth is one of much importance for it can be shown that the Arthropod head consists of a series of much condensed

and modified metamerism only, it will not in establishing certain views as to the phylogeny of the group, to be considered.

Everywhere among Arthropods we observe marks of metamerism which in the thoracic and abdominal regions is almost wholly undisguised. We find that these regions consist of a series of

similar segments showing much the same structure, both as regards the skeleton and the internal anatomy. Each segment bears a pair of ventral appendages: each has a nerve ganglion, and the appendages of a segment are innervated from the ganglion of the segment. In the insect the thoracic appendages are

greatly modified: with the abdominal appendages on the contrary it is the reverse, and their existence is now shown chiefly by embryology.

It is clear that the mouthparts show that they are ventral appendages which

of their number and innervation should throw some light on the true nature of the head, and of the amount of cephalization and condensation it has undergone, and of what it has become.

In side view the suboesophageal ganglion of insects shows three enlargements. The anterior one, called in dissection the

the Prothoracic gives rise to the nerves which innervate the size.

while the third - Prothoracic - which in the Decapod crustacea innervates the second pair of antennae, here innervates no appendages but gives rise to the roots of the stomato-cardiac sympathetic system. In this segment is borne the Labrum or upper lip. This is not

portion of the ventral integument. Passing to the sub-oesophageal ganglion we find that it innervates the mandibles, maxillae and labium, indicating that it is the product of the

view of Mallinck must be accepted, and the head be considered as

disputed points. The view of Gegenbaur (70) already briefly stated is that the open system with stigmata is secondary, the primary condition being a closed system leading into a pair of lateral, leaf-like expansions on the sides of each segment. The air in the tracheae in these

these insectoid, and by a gaseous exchange that within the

tracheae was purged. He believes that the tracheae originally
 functioned as hydrostatic organs and became secondarily adapted
 to their respiratory function, modifying for its furtherance the lateral
 processes. At this point in the history of the insect
 hypodermis, which upon a change to terrestrial life, while the remainder
 was being lost at a subsequent molt of the cuticle, having open

arguments to support it is that larvae which will later have
 stigmata on the mesothoracic segments. As by the time the wings
 are hypertrophied tracheal gills, stigmata should not occur on these
 segments. Another difficulty has
 which have mesothoracic stigmata. Another difficulty has

stigmata will open in the adult and though stigmata and gills never
 coexist in a segment, yet the point of attachment of the gill never
 coincides with the place where the future stigma will open.
 He argues that the gills and stigmata have no genetic relation and

that the closed 'tracheal' system is secondary.

processes appear, into which the tracheae grow at a distinct rate
should contain tracheae from the first, as according to that view
the processes are developed to satisfy the demand for the purification
of the air in the tracheae. From his studies on the subject, Müller
thinks that the wings are not modified tracheal gills, but regards
them as derived from lateral processes of the dorsal plates of the
larvae.

The evidence from rectal gills in the larvae of the Libellulidae
seems to the writer to support a rectal gill as being
as being secondary, and correlated with the assumption of an
insect larva. If this be so, it is worth noting that
metamorphic external gills are also secondary acquisitions,
and other facts seem to sustain this view. Hence the
assumption above, that the primitive form of respiration was
through open stigmata and that the former processes were secondary,
is not contradicted by the facts.

The absence of stigmata on the head and on one or two abdominal segments remains to be considered in this connection. The view
is that each segmentally repeated in some seg-
ment should be present in some form in every segment. To find traces
of the missing stigmata and the tracheae leading from them
embryological investigation has been resorted to and in some
cases with success.

For the lack of stigmata on certain abdominal segments, the
description of the development of the Bcs are detailed in Erass (50.)
may be consulted. He says that on the posterior region
of the dorsal surface of the embryo two pits are
formed. Later, the two openings thus become magnified
to form the protoderm, and elongation of the pits converts
them into the two pairs of Malpighian tubes of the adult.

The only difference between these pits and those of just developing tracheae
is that the former are never so small. The
abdomen were not folded onto the dorsal surface of the egg, the
pits would exactly correspond. He claims additional value for
this explanation from the fact that in the silkworm stigmata are

absent from these segments, and there are three pairs of Malpighian tubes in the adult.

In the other hand Holothkowski '54

states that the larval Malpighian tubes of each side number three in number, join the proctodaeum by a single basal trunk.

In the pupa the terminal portions undergo histolysis and are ultimately lost, while the basal trunks grow out to form the Malpighian tubes of the adult, remaining simple trunks or branching to form three tubes on each side, most Lepidoptera!

If these observations be correct the primitive condition in Lepidoptera was that of a single pair of Malpighian tubes and therefore representing the superclass not trachea, but one segment.

If we seek for modified respiratory organs in the head we find no structures which can be homologised with them in any part of the prooral portion. Homologous structures are absent from the head in some of the proctodaeum segments.

Two organs may be considered in this connection — the salivary and the spinning glands. The former arise as paired epiblastic invaginations of the ventral plate just behind the mouth, on the inner side of the mandibles. The ducts are lined by chitin which shows markings very similar

to the delicate spinous threads so characteristic of tracheae. The generally accepted opinion is that the salivary ducts, and, notably the glands, represent the tracheae of the mandibular segment of the head.

The ~~salivary glands~~ ~~of the head~~ ~~are~~ ~~present~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~larvae~~ ~~only~~ ~~in~~ ~~larvae~~, but more recent researches have established their presence in the adult Tortricedinae (Poltzow '85) and in embryonic life Grassi ('86) has described in the Bee three pairs of phyllostatic pits corresponding to the three buccal segments. That one well developed pair of salivary glands were already stated in larvae is well known. The case of phyllostatic invaginations in the same sense the second maxillae, labium' in *Apis* and *Lophylepta* according to Balfour ('85) and are very similar in their structure and development to salivary glands.

The ~~case~~ ~~indicate~~ ~~the~~ ~~presence~~ ~~of~~ ~~the~~ ~~salivary~~ ~~glands~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~larvae~~ ~~only~~ ~~in~~ ~~larvae~~ ~~and~~ ~~not~~ ~~perceptible~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~embryonic~~ ~~life~~ ~~of~~ ~~the~~ ~~majority~~ ~~of~~ ~~insects~~. The three pairs of pits observed by Grassi would indicate the presence of a maxillary pair of tracheae which have become even more rudimentary than the

labial pair. It would be instructive, however, to study the development of the salivary reservoirs, to determine whether they are diverticula of the salivary ducts, or derived from maxillary invaginations which have acquired a secondary relation to the mandibular pair.

Thus we find at some stage of development, traces of structures homologous with the first and second in each of the posterior segments of the head. Their absence on the preoral portion, and the absence of a third appendage inserted in the same position, lead to the conclusion that the second portion is not a member of several 'three' segments, it is also possible that these segments are not homologous with the post-oral ones. What may perhaps be interpreted in the same way is the absence of nephridia from the three anterior segments of the body of the *Allogasteria*.

The primitive arrangement of the genital ducts is also of some importance. The simplest arrangement is that in which the male genital duct is a continuation of the alimentary canal, and the female duct is a distinct canal, as has been shown in *Allogasteria*. Considerable embryological evidence also indicates a paired arrangement as being the primitive one. Without entering into details on this topic, suffice it to say, that it is probable

that the genital organs and ducts were primarily distinct from each other throughout.

From this summary of the ancestral features retained in the insect we can see that it was a very simple animal, the same from which they have been derived and which has been found continuously in nature. The insect is the primitive form.

Archentomon was a segmented, bilaterally symmetrical animal, showing a division into head, thorax and abdomen perhaps slight.

A pair of jointed legs was present on each thoracic and abdominal (?) segment: two pairs of wings, perhaps only dorsal lobes, were present on the last two thoracic segments: a pair of antennae and a pair of eyes were borne on the head: the mouthparts were rounded, for biting, and three pairs were present.

The body was covered by a somewhat chitinous layer resting upon a cellular layer: the alimentary tract was a straight tube, the terminal portions of which were lined by a chitinous layer like that of the surface of the body: into the anterior portion of this tube opened the ducts of a pair of secretory glands, and into the posterior portion opened several small tubes, called Malpighian tubules.

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expected in tracheal tubes joining to the exterior one pair in each thoracic
and abdominal segment except one or two of the latter. The
respiratory system consisted of a series of tracheae in the
thoracic region. The nervous system consisted of two fused anterior
ganglia, forming a supraesophageal ganglion; two nerve cords, one
passing each side of the esophagus and entering a subesophageal
ganglion consisting of several ganglia fused; posterior to this, a
segmentarily placed series of ventral ganglia joined to those ^{next} in front
and behind by pairs of commissural bands. A fat body at least
partly filled the body cavity. The sexual organs were paired and
opened to the exterior by a median duct. The sexes were distinct
and the smallest was colonial.

Having now obtained some idea of the possible characters
of the earliest insects, we are prepared to consider the relations
of the Tricranura to these forms.

If we inquire into the cause of simplicity in some members
of a group of in general high complexity we find that the simplicity
may result from the action separately or together, of a number of
factors. If we have a simple structure of essential
features, the animals concerned entering but slightly into the

circumstances which have changed but little as with *Limulus*), or it may be the result of degradation. If the latter be the case, the degradation may be the result of a parasitic life, or of a change from a motile to a fixed life, as in the barnacles (*Cirripedia*), or it may be correlated with a change of habit and surroundings.

Restating these possibilities for the case in hand, and excluding ~~the possibility of a parasitic life, as not here applicable~~, we obtain the following: The

1. ~~Both groups have undergone much differentiation, but in the~~
2. Both groups have undergone much differentiation, but in the *Thysanura* this ceased after a time and was followed by degradation, resulting in the production of forms so simple as to appear primitive. 3. ~~The~~ *Thysanura* have undergone much differentiation the *Thysanura* have undergone some differentiation, varied little and have retained most of their ancestral features.

concerning the *Thysanura* we cannot say more than that they should show no more than a few simple features.

is a group in which greater differentiation has occurred than in the *Limnaea* followed however in some cases by a reduction.

Caryoceras Theorem is sustained, on the one hand by the evidence obtained from the tracheal insects, and on the other by the structure of the *Lophoceros*. Of the latter group, the *Lophoceros* are less complicated on the whole than the *Colymbus* and *Amphibia* and *Salix* are among its simpler members while *Lophoceros* and *Macrurus* are more highly developed.

From *Archentomon* two or several trunks develop. One of these trunks divides, one limb becoming the *Limnaea* which have a single trunk, and the other limb becoming the *Archentomon* which have two trunks. Hence the branches of this limb would be short. The branches representing *Lophoceros* *Macrurus* etc. while the tip of the trunk represents the *Archentomon*.

of the latter into thorax and abdomen. In this regard
Schlegel's view approaches the monogloss rather than the polygloss
in the internal structure of the *Didymus thymaster*. The
investigation of thoracic and abdominal division but external
anatomy fails to furnish any evidence to confirm this view.

Perhaps the most noticeable distinction between the *Didymus*
and *thymaster* is that expressed in the names of the groups.

Those persons who have attempted to derive the latter from the
former have laid stress upon the presence of 'abdominal' appendages
where they are regarded as having been retained for some reason
in the adult, though absent in this stage in the *Insects*.

The presence of two pairs of legs on most of the segments of the
abdomen has also been cited as a point of distinction between the
two groups in the number of segments and thus explaining the
convergence in the number of these in the two groups.

It is a curious fact that the two groups have been regarded as
being distinct from each other, and yet the evidence is so
of a partial fusion of two which were originally distinct from each other.

Recent studies by Rathbun, '58, on *Leptochela* show that the nerve cord, stomach and circulation systems and the segmentation of the metamerites indicate the existence of a segmented plan. The main body segments are the dorsal plate and the sternal glands. Rathbun considers each part as representing a distinct segment but joins to its fellow on the fusion of the dorsal plates.

These studies confirm the view that the *Leptochela* is a segmented animal. The addition of the nerve cord, stomach and circulation systems and the fusion of the dorsal plates as a joint segment of the segmentation. The segmentation of the metamerites is complete. We must also recognize that in the *Leptochela* it has been called for a secondary change in the plan of the metamerites — a secondary change in the metamerites. These segments.

These studies also show that the *Leptochela* is a segmented animal. The addition of the nerve cord, stomach and circulation systems and the fusion of the dorsal plates as a joint segment of the segmentation. The segmentation of the metamerites is complete. We must also recognize that in the *Leptochela* it has been called for a secondary change in the plan of the metamerites — a secondary change in the metamerites. These segments.

stage at which these disappear in insects and the adult condition as seen in forms differing in no greater degree than do rays. Another feature worthy of consideration in this connection is the embryology of the Hydrachela. Hatcher and Hatcher (1904) show that in this group the larva emerges from the egg with less than one pair of jointed appendages and with only a pair of well developed legs. Additional segments and appendages develop as post-embryonic changes. If we compare this increase with that in insects we find a radical difference. In the insect embryo certain rudiments of appendages arise in the number of ten pairs upon the abdomen. Lepidoptera aside from the two thoracic pairs also present. After hatching instead of an increase in the number of segments, either no change occurs, or there is a reduction—never an increase—but the rudiments of appendages become lost before the hatching takes place.

Another significant point with reference to the evolution of the appendages of the head and thorax, in the two groups, and in the joint I quote Macleay (1874) who says: "The young *Strongylocentron* [a dipterid] has three pairs of functionally active legs: the young *Hydrachela* has only one pair, and the rudiments of the other two pairs are lost before the hatching takes place."

somite being gillous, and it was formerly thought that
 established a connection between the Myriapoda and the insects, the three
 pairs of larval legs of the Myriapod being supposed to correspond to the
 three pairs of legs of insects. Such, however, is not the case,
 there being no second maxillae in Myriapoda the first pair of legs
 in the larva must correspond with the second maxillae of insects,
 and even if this could be shown to be incorrect the three
 pairs of legs would still not correspond with those of insects
 because in the young *Strongylocoma* the second, and in
 some the third, post-embryonic somite are devoid of legs. However
 the larvae are only apparently hexapodous, not in reality so,
 as in some there are no legs at all in the larval stage, and in others
 no functional or real hexapodous larval stage occurs as
 far as is known.

The mechanism of respiration in the Myriapoda has been
 investigated by Charlevoix '77, and found to differ entirely from
 that in the Hexapoda, for in the former group no dilatations
 or contractions of the body cavity, capable of causing respiration,
 occur in any stage: neither do currents of air pass through
 any of the more or less numerous spiracles, the spiracles being

wholly passive. In repose inspiration and expiration are
 passive, but in motion this is aided by the action of the muscles on the tracheae.
 The same system of movement of the tracheae is also

In the Hygriopoda the antennae are innervated from
 the brain anterior to the portion innervating the eyes, according to
 Newport ('43), but in the Hexapoda according to Kingsley, 1851, a
 different arrangement apparently holds. The present writer
 fails to confirm this last statement, for the Hygriopoda at least, and
 the whole subject needs re-examination.

These differences are so great, both in number and in
 amount that a more extensive study of the Hygriopoda and Hexapoda
 appears doubtful, and the position of *Scelopendrella* becomes more
 uncertain. We may conclude that the weight of evidence negatives any
 real difference of order, and that the Hexapoda is a distinct order
 within the same class.

Turning now to Peripatus, we find as in the Hygriopoda
 no division into thorax and abdomen, and ^{that} the body is a repetition
 of similar metameres, each with a pair of appendages. The head
 bears a pair of jointed antennae; the mouth is armed with a

pair of jaws and is followed by a pair of salivary glands which open into the ducts of a pair of slime glands.

Without attempting a description of the anatomy of the

In the insects we have three pairs of mouthparts; in the triloboda three; in the diploboda two; and in Peripatus a single pair. The number of pairs of antennae is the same throughout.

The nervous system of Peripatus is unlike that of any other known Arthropod. The supra-oesophageal ganglion is formed by the fusion of two masses as in the other Arthropods, but the two lobes of the ventral nerve cord, instead of being fused and situated on the median line, lie quite far from each other and are connected by numerous cross commissures, giving the entire structure a ladder-like appearance.

At the posterior end the two cords bend dorsally and unite above the rectum. The sexual organs open to the exterior

near the anterior end of the abdomen in a median duct.

In the diploboda the sexual organs form a single median mass opening to the exterior upon the coxal joint of the second pair of legs in a pair of ducts. In the triloboda

organs are undivided and open in a single duct, at the posterior end of the body. The arrangement in insects has already been discussed and is entirely different.

In their development the species of *Forcipatus* are very anomalous and differ greatly. In three species, *Sciastes* '85, give no yolk and a total segmentation. In *P. capensis* there are indications of a recent loss of yolk, and the segmentation is total or meroblastic, while in *P. novaezealandiae* there is a great deal of yolk and the segmentation is meroblastic. In *P. capensis* gastrulation is shown by Sedgwick to be epibolic. The elongation of the embryo and its division result in the formation of one part into the mouth, and the other into the anus of the adult. The same thing happens in the case of *P. novaezealandiae* but in a different way.

One feature of the tracheate arthropods is the possession of a tracheal system. In insects the tracheal system is very extensive and their respiration is performed by segmental organs comparable to those of the annelids, a pair of which occurs in each of the segments.

the fact that the studies on the development of the brain
show a resemblance to the brain and its development, namely that

successor not only before the appearance of the oligodendrocytes, and
the both are similar according to some, perhaps the other.

This view would place the oligodendrocytes and astrocytes as distinctly

It may be well to consider here the structure and homologies of

the various cells in the brain. The oligodendrocytes are the most

in the brain, and are the most numerous. They are the most

they are of the nature of corals, and that the central vessels of
the brain are of the same nature, with the addition of a secretory

function. The cells have retractile muscles and can thus be drawn

through the narrowest passages of the brain, and thus

with a retraction of the cells in regard to those that are difficult to contract.

the means of living books as is seen in the Scaphopoda. In the
Siphon living books and tracheae may coexist, while in the Mollusca and
Tracheae are absent Schlimmer (1871). The origin of the tracheae
has been considered in the observations of Bruce (1871) and the
tracheae are but modifications of the pulmonary system
existing in some of the groups. Without

Kingley (1885) as expressing the recent views upon the subject.
If then the respiratory organs of the brachiopods are derived from
the pharynx, tracheae and pulmonary organs are
derived in a special manner. The pharynx is the source of the
respiratory system, but in some of the brachiopods the tracheae
are derived from the pharynx, while in others they are derived from
the pulmonary system.

We consider the pharynx to be the source of the respiratory system
in all brachiopods, as many of the brachiopods have
tracheae derived from the pharynx, while in others they are
derived from the pulmonary system.

as indicated in the illustration.

Instructions de l'Etat. 50

Question - do we have enough to distinguish these in

and for the present the letter may be regarded as irrefragable and

therefore dialectic in origin.

In the strachwick near 19.7.1914

[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]

♂. In insects they erupt into the prothoracum, we have one with the trachea, a case of analogy rather than of homology.

Another point of difference between the insects and brachinians.

One group of chitinozoans remains to be considered - the Crustacea.

The old opinion, that all virtuous men labour to a common

It is necessary to notice the structure of the nervous system in the Crustacea, and to compare it with that of the other groups, while the nervous system of the Crustacea is more advanced than that of the other groups, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system.

Trilobites, as we have seen, does not agree well with either group in its development nor in some of its whole features.

The Crustacea differ from all the other groups in a number of respects. Thus the prothoracic exoskeleton of the Crustacea is more advanced than that of the other groups, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system.

shell glands. The appendages of the Crustacea are typically biramous, while they are never so with a few doubtful exceptions in the other groups. In the Crustacea the prothorax is

more advanced than the other groups, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system.

embryological characters also exist, which indicate a separation of the Crustacea from all the Tracheata except the Crinoids.

These great differences between the Crustacea and Crinoids are sufficient to separate them from the other groups, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system, and the Crustacea are more advanced than the other groups in the nervous system.

abundances occur in the post-trilobian period and this holds true
of the Cambrian, at least as far forward as it includes the second
period. In the Cambrian, however, the abundance of the trilobites
which has already been shown to be an inviolable standard and
the abundance of the trilobites must then be a reliable
standard.

The abundance of the trilobites in the Cambrian, as
the trilobites, corresponds with the presence of similar forms
described by Hensler '85, as occurring in the Cambrian of
the Cambrian. The abundance of the trilobites in the Cambrian
has been compared to the abundance of the trilobites in the
Cambrian of the Cambrian and it is evident that the abundance of the
trilobites in the Cambrian is a reliable standard.

Elsewhere, however, would lead to these glands being
considered as a general orthogonoid character and therefore as
the same as the trilobites, the abundance of the trilobites in the
Cambrian.

These and the facts previously presented render a discussion
of the trilobites of the Cambrian unnecessary and a common ancestor of all
these groups must certainly have lived at a period long before the
trilobites in the Cambrian.

The trilobites in the Cambrian.

For even the most recent view as to the relations of the different groups of Anthozoids may be expressed as follows. "The primitive Anthozoid trunk was its root divided into two great branches of which one developed through the Ptilothoda comprising the Crustacea and some groups of a branch which developed Simulidae and the Cnidaria. The other great branch, through Myxipod-like forms, developed the Hexapoda."

The weakest portion of this view is its assumption of the development of the Hexapoda through Myxipod-like forms, and those who dissent from this view, while accepting the relation of the Crustacea and Cnidaria as given above look upon the Myxipoda and Hexapoda as independent forms which have arisen from a common ancestor. The latter view is the one which is generally accepted.

We now confront the question - what is the origin of the Anthozoids? The question has been answered in the past. The answer has been made to answer this question. Assuming the monophyletic origin of the entire subkingdom, the most primitive forms of the Anthozoids have been traced back to the aid in the solution of the problem. Embryology has also been

called on to give assistance for the value of evidence as a
recapitulation of phylogeny, and logical only in so far as it is universally
recognized.

The larval stages where the animal is
multiploid or concealed by secondary ones, those larval stages which
are ancestral can only persist in an unchanged environment.

As these changes have been far greater on land than in the ocean it
follows that marine larvae show more trustworthy features for
phylogenetic study, than do terrestrial ones, and this explains the
importance of determining the ancestral Crustacean, for the light it
should throw upon the derivation of the entire group of Arthropoda.

The general presence of a zoea larva in the developmental stages of the
Malacostraca, for a time led to the belief that this larva represented an ancestral
stage in the history of this group. More complete and accurate observations
which had been classed as zoeas being in reality quite different and heterogeneous
in different Crustacea. These observations also called attention to the fact that
in many cases a simpler larva was present, appearing before the zoea in
ontogeny, and differing from the latter in that it could be clearly distinguished
from other larval forms even in widely different Crustacea. As a result

or these observations the zoea is no longer regarded as ancestral but has been relegated to the class of secondary larvae.

The significance of the protozoea is a distinct question. Its slight variability in different forms however and other reasons have led to its acceptance as an ancestral form but not the most ancestral form. If all zooplankton were removed, the protozoea would be the most ancestral form. The zoea is not a protozoea but a simpler form — a true Nauplius comparable in all respects with the Nauplius larva of the Entomostraca.

This Nauplius having the same character, whether as a larval Decapod, Cirriped, Phyllopod or Euploiid is generally accepted as representing the most ancestral stage which exists in the present and the zoea is therefore a later and more ancestral stage. A third stage in the stages preceding the latter an earlier one than the zoea, the nauplius, is the first form in the series.

The extreme resemblance of the protozoea to the zoea is the result of a recapitulation; the view that the apparent groups of Crustacea derived from this Nauplius ancestor. Some do argue that the Malacostraca were derived from some stage subsequent to the Nauplius,

which he designated as the *hypopharynx*, and regards the *propharynx* as being the intermediate representative of that organ. This view would explain the *hypopharynx* as a *propharynx* which has been lost in the *Amphipoda* as an ancestral feature common to both branches. The *hypopharynx* is therefore regarded as representing with a few secondary modifications the *propharynx* which is common to both branches.

It is to be noted that the *hypopharynx* is not a new structure. He claimed that the ventral nerve chain of the *Amphipoda*, *Crustacea* and *Insecta* was homologous, and that any phylogenetic view which conflicted with this was untenable.

There was a view that the *hypopharynx* was a secondary structure and that the *hypopharynx* represented an ancestral condition. The *hypopharynx* has no ventral chain, this must be a more recent development. But as the *Amphipoda* cannot have been derived from the *Crustacea* since the *hypopharynx* follows that the ventral chain in *Amphipoda* has been independently acquired from that of the *Crustacea*. But as the first statement was that the ventral chain is homologous, the *Crustacea* must be derived from the *Amphipoda*, and the *hypopharynx* is secondary. "Zunächst hatte die Stämmform bei jetzt lebenden Crustaceen die *hypopharynx*-form als ursprüngliche zu beschreiben."

just as the succedent form of the crustacea limb is the
concomitant with the larval crustacean limb is the larval structure.
Characters of the adult appear earlier and earlier in development.
Thus in the crustacean larva which corresponds to the larval crustacean
American character have appeared; viz. the three pairs of legs and
the lower shell. The new mode of locomotion, ^{in legs} has resulted from
much exercise and the situated sense of the trochodermis has therefore
become the three most anterior pairs of the adult. Why is it that these
three pairs and only these appear? The answer is, that in a young
larva creeping from the egg at a very early period, as is the case with
in crustacea, the three pairs of legs are essential to an independent life and the obtaining of nourishment.
These three pairs of appendages serve for locomotion, and also in part
for feeding and respiration, and in the adult are situated
which this are situated. When the egg has more food with
the larva creeps as a larva with the foundations
crustacean! Other appendages.

... ..
... ..

The unpaired are, the extra seventy to be sent to the U.S.

in conclusion. L'avis est: 'des impôts et aller au' une

zurückverlöst und, sie ist ungegliedert, enthält die einigen des
anderen Kopftheils der erwachsenen Krabe mit dem Munde und die

Entwickelung der Larve sich der übrige Körper anpaßt und wie bei den Stomatiden von vorn nach Differenzirt. Der Karyothylus ist eine typische Trebelianer; die Vorfahren der Krebse Pecassen noch keine typische Karyothylaner, noch weniger stammen sie von einem krebsthätigen Stamm ab."

In the *Stachnada* concentration also apparently occurs.

The general resemblance of the adult *Prigada* to a
the adult *Stachnada* is remarkable, especially in the
shape of the same structure is in the *Stachnada* but the
resemblance is not perfect. The most striking
reason for placing the *Stachnada* to the *Amphibia* however, is the
structure of the body. In the *Stachnada* are animals made of
of a mass of substance, the same as the *Stachnada* but
different. But the *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the

The *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the
in the *Stachnada* and *Amphibia* and *Stachnada*
the *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the
in the same way.

The *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the
resemble the *Stachnada* as descending from an *Amphibia* stock, and
reject the *Stachnada* as being only secondary.
Others reject the *Amphibia* theory at least as it is
the *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the
and *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the
the *Stachnada* is a more or less one of the

some of the relations in a trilobite animal and the same
became more consolidated and increased as the other groups and
became more complicated and folded."

If as has been indicated above the tracheae of the strachnids
have arisen as modifications of the lungs books, they must either
have originated independently from those of the other Tracheata or
these groups are derived from the strachnids the reverse—that the
strachnids are derived from the other Tracheata—being disproved by their
Eustacean affinities and in other ways. The derivation of the
other Tracheata from the strachnids cannot be accepted either.
Then in strachnids and Diplopoda the stigmata open on the ventral plates in
the Mesopoda and Chilopoda outside these plates and in Peripoda they are
scattered over the entire surface of the book. These different
distributions may indicate an independent origin of the tracheae in the
different groups. Emery suggests, *brassé, Soc. Am. Nat. science* that if the
tracheae have arisen from different sources the different
differences might be supposed to arise from a common
source from a segmental arrangement.

The origin of the tracheation tubes has also attracted
considerable attention. The view—that they are modifications of the

... — has already been stated ... in an ...
 nephridia but the new has recently been ...
 Bodland ... however has recently described an ...
 ...
 ... with tubes lying in the nephridial network and not
 distinguishable from the nephridia. To arrange these ...
 ... tubes Bodland states that it would only be necessary to limit
 their number and arrange them regularly. Their absence in ...
 would be explained by the assumption that the secondary relation
 had not been established in that group.

The presence of similar tubes derived from the ... and ...
 the gutta is a difficulty, however, and leads to a suspicion that these
 excretory tubes may have been independent developments with no true
 homology existing between them.

...
 From an examination of the skin and ectodermal glands of the ...
 he believes that from the ... glands of ... have
 developed the ... glands, and the different ...
 structures enumerated above as being considered homologous ...

... article in Bodland ... on the ... glands of ...

Conclusion.

one tendency: Zoologists at the present time seem to be to
seek for numerical homologies, oblivious of the principle found by
Darwin: Biological Variation. The argument of Pasteur given
above, is an illustration of this tendency. Darwin in his Origin of
Species says under this heading. The members of the same class,
though only distantly allied, have inherited so much in common
in their constitution that they are not so very much similar in their
senses in a similar manner; and this would obviously aid in the
development of separate evolution of parts or organs in different
each other, independently of their direct inheritance from a common
progenitor.

The great differences of opinion as to the origin and relationships
of the Chetopoda may, perhaps become reconciled through this view, and
homologies no longer be sought for between structures which are only analogous.

If a common unbranched stem is supposed, the resulting branches
the resulting branches might remain under nearly the same conditions and
not under necessity of a common cause in right nature and the
argument can be made to show that the same result is reached.

environment occurred affecting these branches in the same manner and degree, the most favorable variations existing would tend to be preserved, and these would probably be almost the same in the different branches.

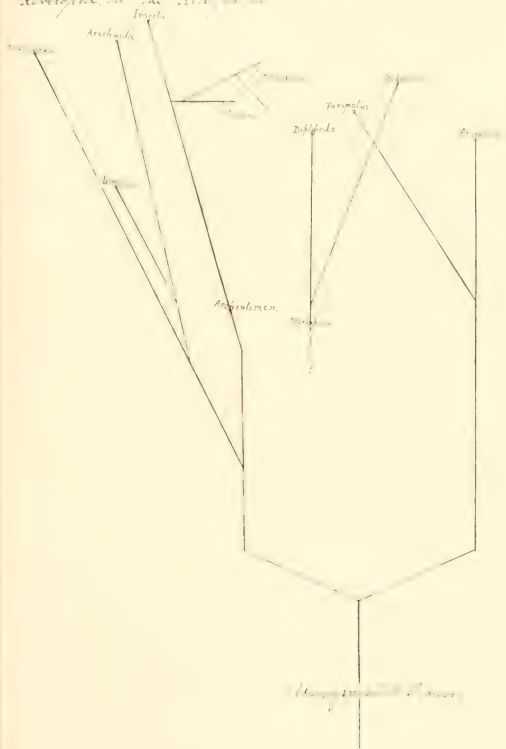
In this way might independently be developed, the segmentation of the body, the general structure of the nerve chain and other features common to annelids and arthropods. If now, changes of environment should occur, differing between the groups, this would result in the appearance of different variations, in the groups, of which those most nearly alike would, perhaps no longer be most beneficial to all the groups; and in consequence different variations would be preserved by natural selection. These divergent variations, present further to give rise to the ~~fact~~ ^{fact} could be followed by a rapid divergence of the groups.

This view has little or no direct evidence in its favor, but in the search for analogies it should not be forgotten that such an analogy is at least conceivable and if not so persuasive as here hypothetically assumed, it may at least explain some of the less important similarities.

If this hypothesis were to be fully accepted, the relations of the groups concerned, would, perhaps be that presented in the following diagram.

... divergent groups with increasing complexity. Horizontal lines little variation and descending lines a degradation.

The branches of the insecta, insecta, and insecta have not been developed in the diagram.



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- 1. 1. Cell wall
- 1. 2. Connective tissue
- 1. 3. Intestine
- 1. 4. Intestine
- 1. 5. Lumen
- 1. 6. Duct of pancreas & the Pharynx.
- 1. 7. Epithelium
- 1. 8. Epithelium
- 1. 9. External limiting membrane
- 1. 10. Fore Gut.
- 1. 11. Ganglion cell.
- 1. 12. Terminal ridge.
- 1. 13. Heart.
- 1. 14. Fore Gut.
- 1. 15. Mesoderm
- 1. 16. Hypodermis.
- 1. 17. Mesoderm
- 1. 18. Light band.
- 1. 19. Longitudinal muscle
- 1. 20. Muscle fibres

1. 4	Small intestine
2.	Stomach
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6. 2	Small intestine
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These figures were drawn with a Leica-Stereomicro camera and a No. 4 eyepiece. The ^{times} objective used is stated for each, below. The drawings have been made with a view to a reduction of one third by the process for their transfer to stone, but the reduction has been nearly one half.

Figures 1 to 23, inclusive, are of *Amurda* maritima; the remainder are of *Leptismm saccharina*.

- Fig. 1. Surface view of the cuticle showing the papillae which cover it. D.
- Fig. 2. Section of the hypodermis and cuticle with a faint division of the latter into two layers indicated. D.
- Fig. 3. Vertical, slightly oblique section of the anterior part of the head. The jaws are cut just behind their tips and the pharynx is cut almost tangentially. Slightly diagrammatic. C.
- Fig. 4. Longitudinal section of the oesophagus. D.
- Fig. 5. Cross section of the oesophagus showing the epithelial ridges. D.
- Fig. 6. Attachment of two muscles to the foot wall showing the myofibrils. D.

Fig. 19. Transverse section of the heart close to a pair of setae which show canals through the walls. $\frac{1}{2}$ inch immersion lens.

Figs. 20-27. A series of cuticular drawings in various positions showing the relations of the heart and aorta to the digestive tract. Fig. 20, in the metathorax; Fig. 21, in the mesothorax; Fig. 22, in the prothorax, at the valve between the fore and mid cuts; the heart has now become the aorta; Fig. 23, just in front of the prothoracic pair of legs; Fig. 24, at the front of the prothorax; Fig. 25, at the back part of the head; Fig. 26, a little farther forward; Fig. 27, just posterior to the brain. C.

Fig. 28. Blood corpuscles. D.

Fig. 29. Circular cells situated in the dorsal and posterior portions of the head. D.

Fig. 30. Duct leading from these cells, on each side, to the mouth. D.

Fig. 31. Opening of this duct upon the ventral external surface of the lower lip at its posterior end of the median cleft. The section drawn was not quite exactly longitudinal and hence this cleft is not seen. $\frac{1}{2}$ inch immersion lens.

- Fig. 32. Cross section of the ventral tube ending from the pharynx shown in Fig. 31 to the abdominal vesicle, the section taken in the region of the head. D.
- Fig. 33. Cross section of the same in the mesothorax. D.
- Fig. 34. Cross section of the abdominal vesicle. The cells have numerous granules. From the posterior surface of the vesicle.
- Fig. 35. Cross section, vertical of the brain, cutting the optic lobes and the collar nerves ending from the optic lobes to the cells two of which are also cut; and showing the relative position of the brain and oesophagus. D.
- Fig. 36. Cross section of the brain in front of the optic lobes. D.
- Fig. 37. Longitudinal section, vertical of the brain on one side of the median line, cutting the root of the antennal nerve. D.
- Fig. 38. Longitudinal section of a visceral ganglion. D.
- Fig. 39. Cross section of the metathoracic ganglion showing the nerve leading to the metathoracic pair of feet. D.
- Fig. 40. Surface view of the metathoracic ganglion, from above, with its main nerve trunks. D.
- Fig. 41. Surface view of part of the left side of the upper surface of the head, showing the post-antennal organ and the cells in their relative positions. D.

- Fig. 72. Vertical section of an ocellus. $\frac{1}{2}$ inch immersion lens.
- Fig. 73. Vertical section of a post-antennal organ. The pigmented tissue is seen on the inner surface. $\frac{1}{2}$ inch immersion lens.
- Fig. 74. Surface view of a post-antennal organ. D.
- Fig. 75. Section of the ventral portion of the fourth abdominal segment, showing the posterior nerve cord and two masses supposed to represent the rudiments of the spiracles. L.
- Fig. 76. Left antenna, showing sense bristles and a sense organ. D.
- Fig. 77. Section of the left antenna. The epidermis is shrunk away from the cuticle but without breaking the nerves running to a sensory bristle and to the sense organ. D.
- Fig. 78. Camera outline, showing the form of the sense-organ. The dotted line is seen on focusing deeper. L.
- Fig. 79. Cross section of the testis of an immature male. D.
- Fig. 80. Cross section of the same testis as in Fig. 79, but showing the line A.B. Fig. 81. L.
- Fig. 82. Longitudinal section of the vas deferens and the duct of the salivary gland. L.
- Fig. 83. Cross section of the vas deferens. L.

- Fig. 53. Longitudinal section, somewhat tangential of the vagina, oviduct, receptaculum seminis and a portion of the uterus. D.
- Fig. 54. Base section of the oviduct and receptaculum seminis. D.
- Fig. 55. Cross section of the ovarian tube showing strings of germinal cells. young female. D.
- Fig. 56. Longitudinal section of the anterior end of an ovarian tube, showing germinal epithelium. D.
- Fig. 57. Longitudinal section of part of an adult ovarian tube showing maturing ova. D.
- Fig. 58. Longitudinal section of the testis showing the changes in the maturation of spermatozoa from the condition shown in Fig. 50 to the next, showing seminal globules. D.
- Figs. 59-62. Cross sections of a testis, maturing spermatozoa: Fig. 59, represents a stage intermediate between Figs. 49 and 50; Fig. 60, a cross section along the line C.D. of Fig. 58; Fig. 61, a cross section along the line E.F. of Fig. 58 and Fig. 62, a cross section along the line G.H. of Fig. 58. D.

Longitudinal section of the maxillary jaw adult male D.

$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{4}$

1884-1885. The first year of the new century. The first year of the new century.

Scale 1/2 inch = 1 mile. D.

Base section: a bundle of muscle fibres. 4.

[Faint handwritten notes at the bottom of the page]

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From a π meson in $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$.

" 2. "see section," the junction. C.

[illegible]

1. The first group of people who are interested in the study of the history of the United States are the people who are interested in the history of the United States.

Ballighian tube in section, just internal of it.

Three sections of the beam with three of its

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

- Longitudinal section of a thin skin tube, showing the glandular primordia. D.
- Cross section of the heart in the isolated region of the abdomen. D.
- Cross section of the heart, in the metathorax, showing blood capillaries, and nuclei of the muscles of the walls. D.
- Longitudinal section of the metathoracic and first two abdominal nerve ganglia. A.
- Longitudinal section of the nerve cord, showing the sixth, seventh and eighth abdominal ganglia. After Grassi (1891).

Fig. 53. Cross section vertical of the prothorax, showing the antennal nerve, and the calyx and cutting the anterior edge of the stic lobe. C.

Notes: The antennal nerve is shown in the prothorax. The antennal nerve has been designated in the other

is left with the pigment in place.

Fig. 85. Diagram of the anterior crumalobium separated from its main axis and projected onto a plane, the more superficial layers being external to the deeper layers. Two of the cells of the retinulae have pigment; it is removed from all the other cells.

Fig. 86. Diagram of the anterior of the adult *Calliphora vicina* after Giese's trap.

Fig. 87. Diagram of the anterior of the adult *Calliphora vicina* after Giese's trap.

Henry Lorenz Zimm Fernald was born in Litchfield Maine,
 April 7, 1866. He entered the college in 1884. He
 was graduated from the college in 1891. He was in-
 structed French, German, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, surveying,
 astronomy, zoology, physiology, botany, chemistry, physics, logic, ethics,
 political economy, and other studies. He graduated in June, 1891, receiving the
 degree of B. S. In June, 1892, on presentation of a thesis and drawings he received
 the degree of M. S. After graduation, he devoted a year to studies in Biology
 at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn. In the fall of 1893 he entered the
 Johns Hopkins University as a student in Biology but was obliged by ill health
 to leave the university in the spring of 1894. He then spent the summer of 1894
 in the laboratory of Dr. Henshaw, N. P., Bahamas Islands, and in the fall of the same year
 resumed his studies at the Johns Hopkins University.

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